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WHAT PEOPLE THINK ABOUT YOUTH AND EDUCATION

In the Research Bulletin of the National Education Association

EDUCATION today is in no small measure the product of public opinion. It was popular demand that passed compulsory attendance laws, provided financial support through taxation, broadened the curriculum, erected safe and sanitary buildings, and raised the level of professional preparation of teachers. It is public opinion, when enlightened, that supports school authorities in initiating progressive educational practices. It is this same public opinion, when uninformed, that delays or destroys plans for improving education.

It needs to be clearly realized, however, that public opinion does not crystallize in a vacuum. It forms in a given time and place under the stimulus of social forces. Among these forces are groups with special interests who align themselves for or against a given issue, and add to their own strength by enlisting those who have formed no strong opinions. If, therefore, educators are realistic, they will seek to understand how public opinion is formed and how it may be influenced toward socially constructive ends.

The commonest way of determining public sentiment on specific issues is the election. But since issues are sometimes obscured, and opinion changes rapidly between elections, there has been need for a more rapid means of ascertaining public views. As long as 30 years ago various newspapers were conducting state and regional polls, and later certain magazines began to make national surveys. While many of these early surveys were remarkably informing, they were often subject to large errors. These led to the development of the scientific poll or sampling referendum, which takes account of two fundamental considerations:

1. The sampling must include all the significant elements present in the total population being investigated. Account must be taken of such factors as racial derivation, religious affiliation, education, geographical residence, age, income, occupation, and sex.

2. The elements must be represented in the sample in approximately the same proportion as they exist in the total population.

With this modern technique, a survey predicting a national election within 5 percent can be obtained

with 900 ballots. Accuracy within 3 percent is possible with a random selection of 2500 cases. To insure this accuracy it is also necessary that the question be stated clearly, simply, and without bias.

The present survey of opinion on youth and education was made by a committee of the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education. In conducting the poll, this committee enlisted the aid of George Gallup's American Institute of Public Opinion. Surveys of the Institute are conducted by 1100 field reporters strategically located throughout the nation. Answers to the ballot questions are obtained by interviewing people at home, in offices, on farms, and in the streets. Definite methods are used to check on the honesty and quality of the field work. The completed ballots are returned to the Institute's statistical office in Princeton, N. J., where the vote is tabulated.

A total of 3819 persons were interviewed in this survey, concerning which Edward Benson, director of the project wrote: "We have carefully analyzed the cross-section as regards every important control. . . . and I can say without the slightest hesitation that the cross-section is one that accurately represents the adult population of this country."

Following are the more important questions asked in the balloting, and the answers received:

1. *"Many people say there is too much importance placed on education these days. Do you agree or disagree?"*

Seventy-three percent of the population *do not* think education is being overemphasized; 21 percent think it is; 6 percent have no opinion.

From detailed analysis of the replies one fact clearly emerges: Educated persons are least often critical of present emphasis on education. Of those who attended high school and college, 82 percent oppose the idea that education is considered too important, as compared with 68 percent of the group who did not attend high school. Regional and sex distributions did not reveal significant differences in attitude, but the younger voters were slightly more consistent in believing that education is not being too strongly emphasized.

The voters who answered this question were also asked to give reasons for their opinion, and some of these have significance for educational planning. For example, half the persons who thought that education is being overemphasized, gave as their reason that education does not provide enough practical knowledge. And of the persons who took the opposite point of view on the importance of education, more than half could give no reason for their belief except the vague one that the importance of education cannot be overemphasized. Despite much recent discussion of the need

for educated citizens in a democracy, fewer than one in ten cited this as a reason.

2. *"Do you think young people today are getting a better education in school than their parents did?"*

The answers to this question were: "Yes," 85 percent; "about the same," 6 percent; "No, poorer," 7 percent; no opinion, 2 percent.

Only minor differences are revealed when the replies are classified in terms of sex, income, and the other factors. Those who thought education better today, most commonly gave as the reason better equipment, better prepared teachers, and a broader curriculum. Of the 7 percent who thought present-day education was poorer, more than half said there was not enough emphasis on fundamentals — too many frills.

3. *"Do you think our present high school programs are planned mainly for students who are going on to college or for students who are not going to college?"*

Thirty-nine percent of the voters think high school programs are planned *both* for students who go on to college and those who do not; 34 percent said for "college only"; 8 percent believe high schools are planned for those *not* going to college; 19 percent had no opinion.

Apparently, then, 73 percent of the citizens recognize the college preparatory function of the high school. Combining the percents another way—47 percent recognize that high school programs are planned to include those who do not go beyond high school graduation.

The great proportion of indecision is striking. Nearly one person in five is not sure of the purpose of the high school. It is also significant that so many persons think that high school programs are solely college preparatory.

4. *"Among the general public there are usually differences of opinion on such questions as labor unions, war, and government policy. Do you think young people in church and social groups, and other youth organizations, should discuss such questions among themselves?"*

The answers were: "Yes," 72 percent; "No," 18; no opinion, 10 percent. In the South only 64 percent favor discussion of controversial topics by youth as compared with 84 percent in the western states. Among the economic groups, 87 percent of the upper-income level approve free discussion, as compared with 78 percent of the middle and 61 percent of the lowest economic level. Young people are more in favor of free discussion than old people, and urban dwellers more favorable than rural (65 percent of farmers favor free discussion).

The freedom of students to learn is a fundamental issue today. It is thus significant that a majority of *all* groups favor a free consideration of controversial topics by youth.

5. *"Do you think teachers ought to discuss such questions (labor unions, war, government policy) in high school?"*

Of the voters, 67 percent say, "Yes"; 23 percent oppose; and 10 percent have no opinion. The general pattern of the response is similar to that reported on the previous question. Regionally, the New England and mid-Atlantic area is most favorable to free discussion by teachers; the South is both less favorable and more undecided.

A supplementary question brought answers indicating that 47 percent of the voters think teachers, in discussing controversial issues, are fair to all sides; 26 percent believe teachers give only their own ideas; 4 percent qualified their answers ("about as many teachers are fair as not"); and 23 percent said they did not know. The large percent who have no opinion is striking. So is the fact that it is the best-informed citizens who are most skeptical of the fairness of teachers.

6. *"Some people say that teachers favor the children of parents who have the most money or the best positions in the community. Do you agree?"*

Forty-seven percent of the total think teachers are biased in this respect; 40 percent think they are not; 13 percent have no opinion.

Apparently the public is about evenly divided on the question. Classification of the replies suggests that, in specific groups, the attitude that teachers favor the children of the wealthy may arise from ignorance. But the problem remains: Why do four people in ten think that teachers show bias?

8. *"Do you think that all children and young people in grade school and high school should receive complete physical examinations by qualified doctors every two or three years at public expense?"*

Eighty-six percent of the voters favor such examination; 10 percent oppose; 4 percent had no opinion. No other question in this poll received a higher or more uniform support.

9. *"How do you feel about the amount of tax money now being spent for schools here—would you say it is too much or not enough."*

Nineteen percent of the voters say: "not enough"; 47 percent, "about right"; 14 percent, "too much"; 20 percent have no opinion.

The "no opinion" vote was fairly large in all groups. Young people are especially reluctant to express an opinion, possibly because of their lack of experience in paying taxes.

The regional classification shows that adults in the South are most certain that not enough is being spent. Only 9 percent in the South feel that the schools cost too much.

Those who have attended college are the most emphatic that more money should be spent for schools.

There are significant relationships between the replies to this question

and Question 1. (Is too much importance placed on education today?) Most of those who approve the present emphasis on education either approve present expenditures or wish to see expenditures increased. Most of those who think education is overemphasized want to decrease the amount spent.

10. *"Some people claim that certain states are so poor that they cannot afford schools as good as those in other parts of the country. Do you agree or disagree?"*

Fifty percent of the public agree; 27 percent disagree; 23 percent are undecided.

Interestingly enough, agreement was not greatest in the South but in the western states, where schools are relatively well supported. In general it is not those who are directly affected by the poverty of certain states who are acutely aware of state differences, but rather the more fortunate citizens in other regions.

A supplementary question was worded as follows: *"Would you be willing to pay higher taxes so the federal government could give these poorer states the money to make their schools as good as the schools in the rest of the country?"*

Only 50 percent of those who agreed to the first question were asked this question. Their replies were divided as follows:

Willing to pay higher federal taxes	28 percent
Unwilling to pay higher federal taxes	18 percent
Undecided	4 percent

11. *"If a family is so poor that they have to keep their children out of high school, do you think they should be given aid by the government so the children can attend high school?"*

Seventy-two percent approve the idea of government support; 12 percent qualify their answers; 12 percent oppose the proposal; and 4 percent have no opinion.

The outstanding feature of the classified replies is the relative unwillingness of wealthy young persons to support the proposal as compared with poorer young people. In general, the opposition comes from those who attended college and from the upper-income levels, particularly the older voters in both categories.

The 72 percent who agreed to the proposal were asked: *"Would you favor this if it meant that you had to pay an increase in your taxes?"* Nearly six out of seven were willing to pay higher taxes.

12. *"Do you think that the same amount of tax money should be spent in this state for the education of a Negro child as for a white child?"*

Seventy-eight percent of the public say "yes"; 16 percent oppose the proposition; and 6 percent have no opinion.

Although the inequalities in education for Negroes are most apparent in the South, there does not exist in that region an overwhelming popular opinion in favor of such discriminations. In the south-

ern states 56 percent are prepared to spend equal amounts on the education of Negroes and whites; 10 percent are undecided.

13. *"Do you think there are quite a few boys and girls now in high school who would be better off at work?"*

Fifty-four percent of the public believe that quite a few high school students should be at work instead of at school; 39 percent disagree with this idea; and 7 percent are not able to say definitely.

Those who have not attended high school are more inclined to recommend the advantages of work than are those who did. Fewer parents than nonparents believe that employment would be better than high school for quite a few students who are now enrolled. Farmers are least enthusiastic about high school attendance—57 percent favoring work.

Under the heading "Should Government Provide Work for Youth?" may be grouped a number of questions about the National Youth Administration. The replies revealed that: (*a*) one person in four has never heard of the NYA; (*b*) most of those who have heard of NYA think it is part of the government, but only one in three is able to describe accurately what it is; and (*c*) of those really familiar with NYA, four in five think it should be continued.

The question was put to all voters: *"Would you favor a special government program to provide part-time work and training for young people who have left school and cannot find work?"*

Eighty-two percent approved such a program; 11 percent did not; and 7 percent had no opinion.

From a broad view of the results of the poll, the following general conclusions can be stated:

1. The public has a generally favorable view toward present educational programs. Most people reject the idea that education is overemphasized and believe that education has improved in the last generation.

2. The public believes that the schools should offer fair and equal opportunities to all youth. It approves equal treatment of children regardless of race or social positions, and favors educational aid to poor families even if this means higher taxes. Half the people believe that certain states are so poor that they cannot afford good schools.

3. The public favors a special program for unemployed youth who are not in school.

4. The public is for freedom in teaching and in learning.

5. The public will not be satisfied with a static educational program. The public overwhelmingly approves physical examinations for all children. Only one person in seven thinks too much money is being spent for schools. Of those who know the facts, six persons in ten are willing to pay higher taxes

so that the federal government can help the poorer states provide more adequate educational programs.

For educators, the survey offers several suggestions:

Many citizens are unaware of the objectives emphasized in the schools today. The attention given to democratic living and to the nonacademic student in the high school are recognized by relatively few laymen.

The public generally does not object to school expenditures. In fact, a substantial number, particularly among young people, favor increasing educational expenditures.

The public appreciates the need for a part-time program for unemployed youth.

Whatever the reasons, a portion of the public is skeptical as to the fairness of teachers in discussion and in their treatment of children of different economic background.

[*Reported from the* Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, *XVIII (November, 1940), 187-218.*]

WHEN queried by the Research Division of the National Education Association regarding the changes most urgently needed in their respective districts, 864 rural school superintendents listed the following items. The number of times each item was mentioned is indicated in the right-hand column:

More consolidated schools (larger attendance units)	434
New, improved, or larger school buildings (including better lights, sanitation, and grounds)	271
Better supplies and equipment	266
Better trained teachers	261
Broader curriculum	207
More adequate and effective supervision	197
Higher salaries for teachers and other school employees	189
Improved transportation facilities	170
Larger administrative units	162
Better financing	150
Improved library facilities	126
Better methods of certification and/or teacher appointment	78
Improved classroom procedures	67
An adequate health-service program	58

Twenty other items were listed fewer than 50 times by those reporting.

THE TEACHERS OUT-TALK THE PUPILS

STEPHEN M. COREY

In the School Review

A GREAT deal of schoolroom learning is accompanied by talking. The questions that teachers and pupils ask and answer give insight into the progress of learning and into the types of learning that the teacher deems most important. In an attempt to cast some light on these matters, during the school year 1938-39 a verbatim record was made of all the oral questions asked by pupils and teachers in six classes in a laboratory high school. Of approximately 39,000 inquiries, the pupils were responsible for fewer than 4,000. This ratio of more than eight questions asked by the teacher to one by the pupils was fairly constant from class to class.

The present report involves data gathered during one week of the year when an expert stenographer recorded all classroom talk in the six classes. The chief purpose of this analysis of a complete talk record was to get some evidence bearing on the growth of pupil understanding. From this point of view the study was not successful for the simple reason that the pupils did not talk enough to give any evidence of mental development; the teachers talked two-thirds of the time.

Every teacher observed had the Master's degree. The pupils observed were a superior lot, with a mean IQ of 117. The problems in which the writer had greatest interest were: (1) The relative frequencies of the questions and answers of teachers and pupils. (2) What percentage of the questions asked by the teachers appeared to require some sort of higher mental activity for the phrasing of the correct answer? (3) What were the relative frequencies with which teachers and pupils volunteered information? (4) What fractions of the class period were consumed by talk? (5) How much variability was there from class to class in this respect?

Following are the results bearing on these questions:

1. The teachers asked approximately 11 questions for every pupil query. The latter, during the 30 class hours, did not average one question each. The teachers, on the other hand, averaged more than 200 questions each. In the eleventh-grade history class the teacher's questions came at the rate of more than one a minute. This rate probably precluded the possibility of much pupil thinking, since that sort of mental activity takes time. About 38 percent of the teachers' questions were not answered by the pupils. Some of the teachers had formed the habit of answering their own questions before the pupils had a chance. The pupils were aware of this. Many of the teachers' questions went unanswered by anyone.

2. In attempting to assess the thought value of questions, they were classified, in the opinion of three disinterested and experienced instructors, as: (*a*) might require thoughtful answers; (*b*) might require memorized statement for answers; and (*c*) could not be classified under either heading. As might have been predicted, the opinion of the judges differed a good deal. Often it was difficult to identify "thought" and "fact" questions.

The frequency with which teachers asked questions is probably sufficient proof that no great number of "thoughtful" answers were expected. Apparently, few were obtained. The average length of the pupils' answers was 12.2 words.

There were, however, some differences from teacher to teacher with respect to the value of their questions as stimuli for pupil thinking. One teacher of eighth-grade history was outstanding from this point of view. Neither of two science teachers, on the other hand, seemed to ask many thought questions. No trend was apparent so far as high school grade was concerned.

The number of pupil questions was too small to justify a similar analysis of their thought qualities.

3. With respect to the number of times that information was volunteered, teachers were twice as active as pupils. The latter were, however, more likely to volunteer information than they were to ask questions.

4 and 5. If talk is a type of activity which results in learning by the speaker, it might be assumed that the greater part of class time should be consumed by pupil talk. In this respect, this study found a significant variation from class to class. In seventh-grade science, the pupils talked 20 percent of the time, while in eleventh-grade English, largely because of oral reading, the pupils were far more articulate, talking approximately half of each period. Speaking in terms of averages, the chances were approximately 60 to 1 that, at any given moment, the teacher rather than any particular pupil would be talking, and about two to one that the teacher rather than any pupil would be talking.

[*Stephen M. Corey is on the faculty of the University of Chicago. Reported from the* School Review, *XLVIII (December, 1940), 745-52.*]

THERE are a million and a half students enrolled in public nights schools this year, according to the U. S. Office of Education.

RECENT TRENDS IN SCHOOL LEGISLATION

M. M. CHAMBERS
In School and Society

DURING the first quarter of the new year more than 40 state legislatures will be in session and a considerable number of new statutes relating to public education will undoubtedly be enacted. Recent years have shown the following trends in school legislation:

School finance and district organization.—Scarcely anything is more important to the future of education than the merging of small districts into larger and more efficient administrative units, substantial increases in state aid to local districts, and improved methods of apportioning it. In these areas current progress is glacially slow.

A few bright spots stand out. Minnesota and Alabama last year substantially increased state appropriations and Alabama enacted a new plan for determining the relative ability of counties to support education out of local revenues. Previously, in order to get state aid, the counties were tempted to competitive lowering of assessed valuations, thus decreasing the local funds available. The new plan sets up an objective economic index of the counties' financial ability based on farm cash income; public-utility valuation; value added by manufacture; and sales-tax, automobile-license, and state income-tax payments. This index is averaged with the county's assessed valuation.

On the darker side of the picture, appropriations in some states have been erratic. New York made an outright cut of 10 percent in 1939 and substituted one of 2 percent in 1940, coupled with a provision withholding 25 percent of each county's allotment unless the Commissioner of Education deems all or part of it necessary for efficient conduct of the schools.

Whether state aid should be allocated from specific sources or from the general fund of the state is much debated. Most expert opinion now favors the latter.

Perhaps the most promising enactment regarding district reorganization was an Oregon law which set up county committees and a state commission to plan mergers. Important changes in Oregon school districts are expected by June, 1941.

Curriculum and textbooks.—The penchant of legislatures for establishing compulsory instruction in favored subjects is still with us, though perhaps not so widespread as in earlier periods. In 1937, Arkansas made compulsory a unit on alcohol and narcotics for grades three to eight, and North Dakota required inclusion of an elective course in cooperative marketing and consumers' cooperation in high school curriculums. New York prescribed courses in traffic regulation and highway safety and commanded

the state education department to designate a "Bill of Rights Week" with appropriate school exercises.

Free textbooks are moving into the high school as well as the elementary grades. Half a dozen states have enacted free textbook legislation in the past three years.

Teachers and school employees.—Tenure and retirement legislation has shown progress in the last five years. Louisiana, Pennsylvania, Alabama, and Wisconsin enacted state-wide tenure acts and New York extended the provisions of its law. However the Wisconsin act was subsequently repealed by popular referendum. The new acts tend to minimize the probationary period.

The weaker type of legislation known as the "continuing contract law," under which teachers are automatically re-employed from year to year unless formally notified by a specific date, usually April 1, was enacted in four states. The West Virginia law requires the school board to state cause when it gives notice of impending termination.

California, Washington, Oregon, and Maryland enacted minimum salary laws for teachers. A number of states raised the qualifications and salary schedules for county superintendents.

North Carolina in 1939 extended application of workmen's compensation to all school employees, and West Virginia permitted county boards of education to purchase such protection for their teachers and other employees. California and Pennyslvania empowered school boards to purchase group insurance for their employees, and New York permitted the state education association to provide such insurance for its members. California empowered school districts to pay full salaries to teachers on leave for study and travel.

Attendance, welfare, and safety of pupils.—No great recent progress is noted in attendance laws, but qualifications and methods of attendance officers reflect a slowly growing appreciation of the fact that theirs is social rather than police work. Pennsylvania enacted a progressive attendance law in 1937 but retreated from it in 1939, freezing the upper compulsory age at 17 and providing many exemptions, some as low as 14.

Child-labor laws were improved somewhat in Indiana and West Virginia in 1937. The most notable advance was New Jersey's 1940 attendance law, fixing the minimum school-leaving age at 16, and requiring a work certificate from school authorities for all employed minors under 18. Employers are subject to heavy penalties for infractions.

There has been a marked tendency to provide free transportation for private and parochial school pupils.

In 1939, New York authorized boards of education to provide numerous special services for physically handicapped children and stipu-

lated that such services should be made available to all children irrespective of whether they attended private or public schools.

Concern for children injured in transportation accidents has produced a movement to legalize the purchase of liability insurance by school districts, though in 45 states they are still immune from liability even for negligence.

In 1935 North Carolina directed payment by the state school commission of sums up to $600 for medical or funeral expenses of pupils involved in school bus accidents. Payment is made without regard to negligence. The law is said to be regarded as successful, and the principle seems to be well grounded in public favor.

There has been a revival of statutes providing for excusing pupils from school for week-day religious instruction. In the last two years Maine, Kentucky, and New York have passed such laws.

Adult education and other matters.—Statutes encouraging local districts to offer adult instruction have been passed in several states. Some populous states, notably New York and California, are leading in a movement to obtain closer coordination of schools with other social services, including health, welfare, library, and recreation. California also broadened a statute permitting the use of school buildings and grounds for community-center purposes. A New York law of 1939 permits school districts to acquire sites, buildings, and equipment for agricultural, playground, and social-center purposes and to maintain public libraries.

State commissions to study various aspects of public education and the welfare of youth are being set up with increasing frequency.

[*M. M. Chambers is on the staff of the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education. Reported from* School and Society, *LII (December 21, 1940), 645-50.*]

THE little matter of completing work for a doctor's degree at Leland Stanford University in Palo Alto, California, didn't interfere with the official duties of Superintendent of Schools Kenneth W. McFarland, Coffeyville, Kansas.

He bridged the 1500 miles by using shortwave radio. The school board reported the remote control proved satisfactory.—*Journal of Education.*

WHITHER THE KINDERGARTEN?

DOROTHY W. BARUCH

In the California Journal of Elementary Education

THE usual crowd rushes up to the platform after the speaker has finished. (Kindergarten teachers all.) They have questions.

"What shall we do about scissors?"

"What about pictures on the wall? Should we hang them high or low?"

"Do you believe in excursions?"

"What are the dimensions of the blocks you recommend? And the number of each size?"

They go on *ad infinitum*. But they ask not a single question about Johnny. Johnny is lost amid the concern about paints and clay and animals and stories.

These teachers are conscientious and hard-working. But they are looking up a street that ends in a blind alley. They need—how they need!—to look at children harder, and to look less hard at what they do.

Here are some pictures.

A little boy is painting. He splashes blobs of color over the sheet. Some thick, short streaks between.

A five-year-old girl is at another easel. The crude outline of a figure appears. Eyes, mouth, curls, hands, and in one hand a long slender object.

"It's an umbrella, 'cause it's going to rain," the artist murmurs to herself, and starts to take out thumbtacks as a gesture that her painting is done.

Up comes the teacher. "Why, Marylin, look. You're not finished. We don't leave pictures that way."

Marylin looks puzzled. The teacher explains: "See all that space," pointing to the untouched background.

Marylin takes a turn at explaining. "It's sky."

But teacher does not hear. She has moved to the boy. "Tommy, we're painting people today. Don't you remember?"

Tommy mutters: "I don't wanna paint."

Sweetly: "Now, how do you make a head, Tommy? A circle for the head. Remember?"

Then back to Marylin, who has again started taking out thumbtacks.

"Marylin, I told you to finish that picture."

"But . . ." says Marylin.

"You know we always finish things." Then with kindly compromise: "But maybe Marylin is tired of painting. You may put it in the closet and finish it tomorrow."

"But . . . " says Marylin, "sky *is* white *sometimes* before it rains."

What has the teacher done? She has made two children feel that their ideas are not good enough. She has given both a lesson in the necessity for being hypocritical; they must pretend to want to do something

they don't want to do. She has almost made Marylin become untruthful. She wanted Marylin, who had finished, to say she hadn't finished. But Marylin stuck to her guns. (Many children wouldn't.) She has shown Marylin, too—by not listening to her explanation—that it's no use trying to communicate one's views to others. (Fine foundation for conviction of the uselessness of trying to arbitrate and the need for stronger methods.) And, judging by Tommy's face, she has put fear and hatred in his timid heart.

Art is supposed to free a man, to let him feel, at least for a few moments, untrammeled, to let him feel the flow of a material under his fingers responding to his will. (So few things do.) The child's limited motor coordination and other ineptitudes are hampering forces. Why put other hamperings in his way? Why couldn't the teacher have realized that even one blob on a large piece of paper is enough if it means something to a child, if it satisfies anything in him, if it releases him in any way. As children progress (at their own rate) their blobs usually evolve, very gradually, into symbols that are easier for others to read. Very gradually, children begin to focus on product, rather than on process, and they then seek techniques for developing skill. But these things almost never happen in kindergarten. And if we force them, we are apt to cripple ingenuity and initiative for all time.

They are all working with clay, 40 of them.

"First you roll a little ball, this way," says teacher.

They do.

"Next you roll a big ball, this way."

They do.

"Now you make the eyes and nose and mouth."

They do.

"Good. We have such lovely snow men."

The bell rings.

"Goodness! Time for recess. Let's put our things away quickly. . . Into the clay can, children. . . ."

And in go the clay snow men, while the teacher presses them neatly flat.

By contrast, one thinks as one watches of two five-year-olds in another kindergarten kneading, with finger-dirtying enjoyment at the feel of the clay. No more. Another child absorbed in pressing clay "flat, flat, flat"; still another making "a dog that's crying." All of them experimenting, according to their level of development. All obviously getting some inner satisfaction out of manipulation of a yielding substance (at a period in life when so many substances are guarded from pinchings and slappings and messings).

Was the teacher of clay snow men helping children to know that they are capable of working independently, of making their own decisions, of carrying through activities to their own ends? On the contrary,

she was giving them mighty fine training in following the authoritarian word, and helping them need it to feel capable of doing what is acceptable. Worst of all, she has shown these children that work is useless. They have worked—for what? To use what they have made? No, not even to enjoy it. What they made went back into a can, and the teacher has demolished it.

Two little girls are playing in the doll-corner.

"I want to be the baby who's sick," says one.

"No, I want to," says the other. "But I want to."

In steps the teacher. "Stella, Louise. . . Stop quarreling. I think the best way for you to settle this will be for Louise to be the baby. She's smallest, and babies are always smallest."

As her back turns, Stella mumbles: "But I want a turn."

What has the teacher done? She deprived the two of effecting a social adjustment by themselves. They might have fought a bit. But in the process of muddling through, they would have been helped toward feeling capable of working out points of disagreement with others. Again they were deprived of experience in the democratic way.

Teachers should realize that it is important to permit quarreling at this early age. They fear erroneously that if children fight, they will become permanent fighters. But when a person knows he can fight his own battles, just the opposite happens. When he feels he can stand on his own two feet, he no longer needs to fight to prove his own strength. Teachers need to stand back and watch carefully. It is time to enter only when it is certain that children cannot work out a conflict for themselves without hurt to one or the other.

Too often discipline is still punishment.

Here is a child sent to the principal's office because when the teacher asked him to sing alone in front of the group, he hung his head and said, "I don't want to." Of course he didn't want to. He was a monotone. Even if he hadn't been a monotone, being asked to sing in front of the group might have embarrassed him. (It's asked too often of children. Singing then stands for performance instead of enjoyment.)

Here's another boy, sitting in the corner, head hanging low. "Oh," the teacher explains, "he was too slow. He took too long to put his blocks away. So he has to think about it for awhile."

Questioning brings further elucidation. It seems he had made a railroad track. Obviously putting the blocks away involved breaking up the track. Here, at last, a child was doing the thing the teacher has emphasized all along. He was putting emphasis on end product. He wanted to preserve his track. So the teacher punished him for it.

Here is a small girl. She's new.

This is her second week in kindergarten. She too is sitting in a corner. What has she done?

"She has been selfish."

"How has she been selfish?"

"Well, you see, she had the black toy dog all last week and she wants it again this week and I told her she had to give some of the other children a turn. She wasn't doing anything with it anyway—just holding it."

It hadn't occurred to this teacher that clinging to something might have been a comfort in a strange place, that holding something—just anything—close might make one feel less isolated and alone. Instead, here was isolation doubled, and coupled with disgrace.

And so it goes. We do this. We don't do that. We finish paintings. We put blocks away when we finish playing with them. We don't keep a toy dog too long; we give turns to others. . . .

Let's throw the rules overboard and begin to learn about children.

Dorothy W. Baruch is Professor of Education and Director of Preschool, Broadoaks School of Education, Whittier, California, College. Reported from the California Journal of Elementary Education, *IX (November, 1940), 106-13.*

THE Research Division of the National Education Association reports that 24 of the 48 states have some kind of minimum standard for teachers' salaries; in six others the state-aid funds are apportioned in ways that tend to establish salary standards although definite minimum salaries are not fixed. Of the 24 minimum-salary states, four have been added to the list since 1936—California, Georgia, Oklahoma, and Washington. The laws in California and Washington are entirely new, setting state-wide mandatory flat-rate minimum salaries; those in Georgia and Oklahoma are extensions of previous state-aid plans. States having mandatory minimum salary laws are California, Colorado, Delaware, Georgia, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, Mississippi, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, Washington, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. Optional minimum-salary laws are in effect in Alabama, Oklahoma, and Tennessee. There is a wide range in state requirements, from $20 a month for teachers with lowest grade certificates in Mississippi to $1800 a year for teachers with four years' preparation in first-class districts of Pennsylvania.

A FUNCTIONAL ENGLISH COURSE

HAROLD H. SCUDDER

In the Journal of Higher Education

THE compulsory freshman course in English composition is so well built into college curriculums that the average teacher would as soon think of omitting it as think of omitting his breakfast. At New Hampshire this course had varied somewhat in content from year to year, and its teachers had tried and rejected a great many textbooks. Of late it had developed a markedly analytical attack. The student read essays and other prose, took part in class discussions, resolved the items under discussion into their elements, learned to understand the thought of the writer and the processes by which he turned this thought into effective prose. The student was taught to think and to express his thoughts in felicitously chosen words. The course was acknowledgedly difficult, and those who taught it prided themselves that the work was strictly upon the college level.

In spite of this effort, however, the college paper bristled with violations of both good usage and good taste, and an embarrassingly large number of upperclassmen, who had successfully passed the freshman course, handed in, in all other courses, badly written tests.

Last year New Hampshire adopted a wholly new procedure in teaching freshman English. Under the old system, every freshman was forced to take the course in English composition, whether he wanted to or not, whether he needed to or not. Whether he needed to or not depended on the course objectives, which had not been too well thought out. It was a good course for those who thought of writing as an art and wished to learn more about it; but for those who thought of writing as a means only, it was a bore. The course was essentially literary in character, and was being forced on students who in the main had no literary ambitions or even interests. On the other hand, for students who were actually deficient in elementary English, the course was too difficult, and plainly ineffective. Those who barely passed and the larger group for whom maintenance of good English usage was a matter of strict selfdiscipline and who promptly relaxed on completion of the course, combined to form the disturbing group of upperclassmen whose shortcomings presented an insoluble problem for the rest of their college careers.

The new plan at New Hampshire is to weed out freshmen who are already competent and get down to the minority who are manifestly deficient in elementary English; to determine who these last actually are, what their defects are, individually; and then to furnish each student with specific tutoring until

his deficiency is removed. At that point he is dropped from instruction. But if at any time later he relapses, he will be brought in again promptly for further drilling. He cannot be graduated if at the end of his senior year he is under instruction for poor English.

The weeding out of prepared students is done by a standardized test (Iowa English Placement). Of about 600 freshmen who took it last year, 267 were found deficient. An oral test was also given, and those deficient in spoken English only were turned over to a remedial speech expert. The defective writers were formed into groups of about 16 each, which do not meet as classes. Each member meets the instructor individually as many times a week as possible, and is specifically tutored to remedy his shortcomings. Each case is considered separately. A number of students have already been reported as cured and dismissed.

Although the new course has been in operation only one semester it has already converted some instructors who were dubious. It has become increasingly apparent why the old course failed. It did not reach the student at all. He heard the words, but from the distance of the teacher's desk they did not register. But side by side at a table, after much reiteration, what it all means is at last discerned. Tutor after tutor has seen the light break in eyes which he is confident have never brightened for an English instructor before.

The majority of the freshman class, freed by the standardized test given in Freshman Week, are still free. A careful canvas of the departments has not found a single freshman not on the tutorial lists whose use of his language was not in every way satisfactory to the instructors in his courses.

Meanwhile, sophomores, juniors, and seniors are handing in test papers with all the usual faults. We believe this is the last year in which this will be possible for sophomores. Next year the first poorly written paper will bring the offender back into freshman instruction. If a student so remanded really is deficient and has been inadvertently overlooked hitherto, he will profit by the remand. If he is a mere backslider, we expect the discipline to be promptly effective.

Students in the new freshman course write their papers in a newly instituted writing laboratory, attractively furnished and equipped with the necessary reference materials. A member of the staff is always on duty to answer questions and give legitimate assistance. The student who writes a paper here for his tutor writes it himself, for it is signed by the instructor on duty as well as by the student before it leaves the laboratory.

Two English courses are open to freshmen released by the standardized test from the tutorial groups.

One is the customary survey course in English literature, the other the former freshman composition course. The latter has been renamed "Reading for Thought." Its students fill five sections, and, with the exception of technology students, they are all taking the work voluntarily.

[*Harold H. Scudder is Head of the Department of English, University of New Hampshire. Reported from the* Journal of Higher Education, *XI (November, 1940), 412-17.*]

Current Quotations:

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT, dedicating the Franklin D. Roosevelt High School at Hyde Park, N. Y.: "In these schools and in other American schools, the children of today and of future generations will be taught, without censorship or restriction, the facts of current history and the whole context of current knowledge. Their textbooks will not be burned by a dictator who disagrees with them; their teachers will not be banished by a ruler whom they have offended; their schools will not be closed if they teach unpalatable truths, and their daily instruction will not be governed by the decrees of any central bureau of propaganda."

WILLIAM G. CARR, Secretary, Educational Policies Commission: "I wish that I could persuade every teacher in an elementary school to be proud of his occupation—not conceited or pompous, but proud. People who introduce themselves with the shameful remark that they are 'just an elementary school teacher' give me despair in my heart, confusion in my brain, and a pain in my neck. Did you ever hear a lawyer say deprecatingly that he was only a little patent attorney? Did you ever hear a physician say, 'I am just a brain surgeon'? I beg of you to stop this miserable, humiliating habit of apologizing for being a member of the most important section of the most important profession in the world. You, as teachers, can face anyone in the world without a feeling of inferiority. You should begin now to do that very thing. The grandeur of your profession can, if you will let it, clothe you like a splendid cloak. Pull it around you; draw up to your full height; look anybody squarely in the eye; and say, 'I am a teacher.' "

THE NEW EDUCATION IN ALBERTA

H. E. Smith
In The School

FOUR years ago Alberta enjoyed the doubtful honor of being singled out among Canadian provinces as possessing an educational system at once old-fashioned, reactionary, and effete. Today Alberta is in the midst of an educational experiment to test the theories caught up in the phrase "progressive education." The theories, lumped together, may constitute the basis of an educational philosophy, and this essential basic article of faith is, I am sure, an abiding belief in the superiority of the democratic way of life. Alberta's educational system rests upon this amorphus and ill-defined faith, and attempts to crystallize at least some of its constituents into educational curriculums and classroom procedures. Equivocal though the faith may be, it still gives meaning to all the concepts of progressive education, and in terms of it they must be validated.

In current educational discussion a few principles are basic. The first is that personality and character are acquired during childhood and youth. Accordingly, the school (not to mention other institutions) ought to provide for the acquisition of desirable adult attributes. Democracy properly emphasizes cooperation rather than competition, tolerance of the rights of others rather than selfishness, critical-mindedness rather than suggestibility, and concern with the present rather than with the past.

A second article of faith is that man's best guide is his own free intelligence—free, that is, from ignorance and superstition. This freedom of intelligence is the product of knowledge of scientific method and unequivocal acceptance of the scientific point of view. The latter implies not only a critical but a constructive attitude. America (including Alberta) is overrun with people who are prone to be scientifically critical of even the most cherished beliefs and practices, but undisposed to offer anything in their stead.

As a third article of faith I should set down the belief that pupils learn most effectively when the subject matter appeals to them as significant. Clearly this is a dangerous point of doctrine—how to know what is meaningful at different age levels, how to prevent an easy capitulation to the demands of unstable pupil interest and superficial concern, how far to go in attempting to create through pressure more worthy interests—these are not easy questions to answer. Already in Alberta one hears that "the standards of scholarship are falling," that pupils "have little opportunity of carrying tedious tasks to triumphant conclusions," and that "the chief

lesson our pupils are learning is how to have a good time."

Our final article of faith should possibly be called simply a premonition. I refer to the impending invasion of the secondary schools by the whole vast army of adolescent boys and girls. Professor Kilpatrick predicts that for the United States this invasion will be complete by 1960. Since time lags somewhat in Canada, we might tentatively set the date at 1980. Already educators have to wrestle with the problem of a large population of nonacademically minded pupils.

When we come to interpret these articles of democratic faith in terms of suitable plant, curriculum, and classroom procedures, the blueprints are bound to be matters of controversy and the final plans are certain to embody many compromises. The significant features of the Alberta system follow:

The largest administrative unit, the division, comprises on the average about 100 previous school districts. It is expected not only to equalize somewhat the burden of school support but to make possible a more generous educational offering, particularly at the secondary level. Already considerable progress has been made in providing high schools at central points within districts, and in supplementing the equipment of existing schools.

The elementary school has been divided into a primary school of about three years and a junior school of three years. The pupils in each school, hitherto sharply segregated in grades, now work much together. This is true even of the "graded" city schools. Such subjects as music, art, literature, and health lend themselves admirably to concerted participation by pupils of a reasonably wide age and attainment range. Incidentally, a number of primary teachers are now suggesting that a better division might be grade one by itself, then possibly grades two, three, and four combined, and grades five and six combined. Beginners, still unable to read, are seriously handicapped in attempting enterprise activities with children who do read. The obvious advantages of some form of grouping are, first, that it greatly reduces the number of teaching groups; and, second, it affords much richer opportunity for sharing and cooperating.

The former grades seven, eight, and nine, are, as rapidly as finances permit, being organized as a new intermediate school, parallel in many respects with the junior high school in the United States. The upper three grades constitute the high school proper.

A fundamental feature of the elementary school is the enterprise technique.* About half the pupil's time is spent in regular class session on drill and mastery subjects, such as arithmetic, composition, spelling,

* EDITOR'S NOTE: See the EDUCATION DIGEST for September, 1940, pp. 42-44, for a discussion of this technique.

and remedial reading. But the integrated sequence of activities is increasing. Already the materials of the social studies, elementary science, and health make up one general theme— "Basic Human Needs." Music, art, literature, and even part of arithmetic and language may soon be included in the integrated group. And it is being tentatively suggested that the entire elementary program be integrated and presented as an activity program with the abolition of all subject-matter boundaries.

The intermediate school is nonselective, accepting all pupils (except those seriously retarded) at about 12 years of age. Like the English senior (Hadow) school it offers a rich program of studies designed primarily to prepare students for effective membership in a democratic society. At the end of the intermediate school period the student meets for the first time an external examination set by the Department of Education. The papers are specifically designed to minimize emphasis on facts or information, as such, and to concentrate emphasis on ability to read with comprehension, to reason logically from given premises, and to show a judgment mastery of curriculum material. On the basis of these tests, supplemented to some extent by confidential reports of teachers, students are classified into categories *A, B, C,* and *D.* To category *A* the entire high school program is open; for *B* students the purely academic load is slightly restricted; *C* students must fill their first high school year with approximately a two-third's load of nonacademic subjects, such as music, art, sociology, and commercial subjects. Category *D* students must repeat the grade-nine year and sit again for the examinations.

This brief outline may serve to indicate that Alberta is attempting to differentiate democratically among her adolescent school population, preparing those with the requisite ability for higher education, while not neglecting to provide those not so qualified with a broad general education preparatory to an earlier full-time participation in the interests and activities of a democratic society.

[*H. E. Smith is Associate Professor of Education, University of Alberta. Reported from* The School, *XXIX (November, 1940), 187-91*]

IN American high schools, 59 out of every 100 classroom teachers are women while 11 out of 12 administrators are men, according to the U. S. Office of Education. Of all staff members of high schools, 54 percent are women.

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION FOR FAMILY LIFE EDUCATION

EDNA P. AMIDON AND MURIEL W. BROWN

In School Life

TWO years ago the U. S. Office of Education began four experimental programs in family life education in four school systems selected on the basis of size, regional differences, and occupational specialization. Obion County, Tennessee, is an agricultural southern county. Box Elder County, Utah, is a large western county in which there is a strongly developed church interest in family life. Toledo, Ohio, is a large industrial city with a heterogeneous population. Wichita, Kansas, is a middle western community of medium size and homogeneous population, dependent on both agriculture and industry for its support.

The purpose of the experiment is to find ways of bringing about stronger, more realistic programs of education for home and family living through concerted school and community effort. For a number of years teachers have found the real "content" for their teaching in the home experiences of students. Problems of nutrition, clothing, housing, family relationships, are concerns of life itself. To be completely "abstract" in the discussion of such matters as family use of money or cooperation in family living is ineffective from an educational standpoint, and impossible from a practical one. When a girl says timidly to the teacher: "Is it any use for a family to have a budget when they have lots of debts?" she is opening the door for the kind of teaching good teachers have always longed to do, teaching that helps people to understand and do better the thing they have to do anyway.

A step toward this type of education was the development of the laboratory method in school to give youngsters an opportunity to "learn by doing." Another was humanizing the classroom, with a free discussion of individual needs, and the individualizing of assignments so that boys and girls with special problems could spend their time on these. However, even the most practical projects lacked reality as long as they had to be carried out entirely in the school. And when the home is made a laboratory for this kind of learning, new problems arise.

Parents usually have strong feelings about such matters as room arrangements or meal preparation; no home project can be successful unless it enlists family cooperation. This means home conferences in which parents, teachers, and children plan together. It also means adult homemaking classes.

It is at this stage that teachers begin to feel the full impact of community conditions as they impinge on family life.

"Yes," says Mrs. Black in a tone of despair, "every word you say about Doris taking care of her own clothes is true, but the children can't have enough clean dresses. The water mains don't come out this far and we get all our water from a pump a block away."

"I think it would be lovely for Effie to fix up a room of her own," Mrs. Brown sighs wearily, "but her little sister just has to sleep with her. We can't find a house with three bedrooms for the rent we can afford to pay."

At this point the teacher is faced with two alternatives. She may reluctantly accept the *status quo,* and be content to do what she can to help families adjust to it. Or she may be inspired to do something about a kind of community organization which will make it possible for her teaching to function.

This, briefly, is the sort of experience which preceded our experiments in community organization for family life education. The general plan is to create, under school leadership, community councils representing a cross-section of community interests relating to family life. It is the business of these councils to discover the common problems and needs of local families and to find ways of meeting them. Such a council works through existing organizations, serving as a clearing house of ideas.

In the centers where programs are in operation, it is obvious that homes, schools, and other community agencies are working more closely together on problems of family living. It is impossible to report all the various developments, but a few may be mentioned.

In one city the program has crystallized interest in housing problems to the extent that local agencies and individuals have actually cooperated in building a small house to study ways in which low-cost housing can be privately financed. This experiment has been closely affiliated with the local adult education program. Some of the sponsors go so far as to say that, judging from this experience, no housing project can be really successful unless it grows out of, and is in constant touch with, an educational program which informs and inspires those who expect to benefit by it.

Some of the most spectacular gains have been in community organization for better play opportunities for children of all ages. In two of the programs, family unity through projects which bring families together for recreation have been emphasized. In one county, parties held at night on the playgrounds of rural union schools often draw an attendance of 300.

A more elaborate recreational scheme was planned jointly by parents, teachers, and children in one city. An outstanding feature of this project was its use of parental talents. Parents who could paint, weave, carve wood, sew, cook, or

plant gardens, taught informal "classes" of children who wanted to learn to do these things.

Changes in school programs have taken place as the family life programs have developed. There are more home visits, more planned home experiences in connection with school work. In one entire county, every first- and second-grade classroom has its home-living corner, where small furniture is arranged and rearranged by the children as stories and conversations about home life call for illustration. In one center, a cooperative arrangement with the WPA has made two nursery schools available as observation centers for high school and adult classes studying child development.

All the councils have made special efforts to interpret to the public the needs and problems of homes and families in the community. A result of this intensive public education is a growing appreciation of the part which family life plays in education for democracy.

For almost 200 years we in America have lived too much as though our forefathers had bought, paid for, and bestowed on us a style of life which could be endlessly enjoyed without further effort. We said, "Too bad," when sociologists scolded about the high rate of juvenile delinquency. We said, "Too bad," when photographs of wretched tenements and sprawling jungle towns forced us to admit that these exist. We said, "Too bad," when mental hygienists began to talk mental breakdowns and broken homes. Quite recently we began to see that real democracy is a way of life which has to be learned, that we are living in a world which must be reconstructed because it is not yet serving human values. Now we are trying very hard to "do something" about juvenile delinquency, bad housing, mental illness, divorce, and the rest of the social problems which beset us.

In each of these four demonstration centers we see democracy at work, as these communities study their needs, plan ways of meeting them, experiment with solutions, and evaluate results. This is the way of creative evolution, the essence of democratic practice. Perhaps it is what Goethe meant when he wrote: "What thou hast received from thy fathers, that must thou daily earn in order to possess it."

Edna P. Amidon is Chief and Muriel W. Brown, Consultant, of the Home Economics Education Service, U. S. Office of Education. Reported from School Life, *XXVI (November, 1940), 38-40.*

SENIORS SURVEY THE HIGH SCHOOL

L. THOMAS HOPKINS

In the Teachers College Record

WITH the rapid rise in enrolment in the last two decades, the secondary school for the first time in history really represents all the children of all the people. While this trend has been recognized for years, few, if any, real attempts have been made to modify the institution to meet the needs of the total new school population. Experiments for special groups shed little light on the whole. After following these cursory changes for 15 years, the writer concluded that the reason for this slow process was that educators, despite their sincere efforts to study the situation, were not locating the real problems. Accordingly, he turned to the pupils themselves.

In the past seven years the writer has interviewed approximately 1000 seniors in secondary schools of every size and kind, scattered over the whole country. They were interviewed in groups of from 3 to 40, but usually not exceeding 15. In each school, individuals not in the group were interviewed as a check.

The members of the groups were selected by someone in the central office in consultation with members of the staff. In every case the list was approved by the principal. The only request made by the interviewer was that the group represent a cross-section of the senior class.

The method of interview was simple. I told the pupils that I was interested in improving secondary schools, assumed that they were also, and knew that they could give valuable advice. I made it clear that I would not report their opinions to anyone in the school. I then asked the direct question: "In the light of your four years' experience, what suggestions do you have for improving this school?" During the informal discussion I asked questions only to clarify points already presented by some pupil. When no new suggestions were added, and the old ones seemed clear, I asked someone to summarize the discussion into a few recommendations. These were then arranged in order of importance by the group as a whole.

Every group agreed on the following three recommendations. There was not unanimous individual agreement, but it is safe to say that 80 percent of all pupils interviewed will enthusiastically support these recommendations in the order in which they will be discussed.

The first recommendation is that the staff of the school be composed of persons who will view pupils as human beings and will meet them and their problems on the basis of sympathetic understanding and mutual helpfulness. Pupils want teach-

ers who "are fair, who try to see things from our point of view, who recognize that no one can ever be perfect, who do not pile on homework or discipline us for no other reason than that they are 'sore at something,' who do not play favorites, who never make us feel embarrased before the class, who explain things so that we can understand them, who never nag or threaten, who understand that the present generation is not the same as when they went to high school, who will take time to talk to us if we go to them for advice, who are civil to us when we ask questions, who do not believe that we are trying to 'put something over' on them all the time."

These statements suggest the quality of the usual relationship existing between pupils and staff, and they are drawn equally from small and large, public and private, schools. A majority in all groups felt that there was no one in the school to whom they could go for a free, frank, kindly discussion of things that concerned them vitally. Counselors were testers, deans were disciplinarians, teachers were not interested, and the principal was aloof and usually "cracked down" on them when they *had* to see him. Homeroom teachers were regarded as being more human than other teachers, but pupil contact with them was so limited that they affected only slightly the total situation. It is interesting that pupils rarely said that a teacher lacked knowledge of subject matter, although they often stated that teachers did not know how to teach. According to the pupils, the possibility of improving human relationships is not favorable. They usually estimated that half of the staff was unwilling or incapable of improvement. In one large city school, they estimated that 75 to 80 percent of the staff should be changed.

The second recommendation of the pupils is that the curriculum be changed to include subjects of greater value, interest, and immediate use than those now taught. All groups were dissatisfied with the present subjects, whether in college preparatory, commercial, vocational, or general courses. Opinions in this area can be summarized in the two following classifications:

First, pupils want subjects that really interest them, agreeing that they do better work in activities in which they are genuinely interested. To achieve this they would: (*a*) Abolish all requirements, even English, though they thought this subject had some real value for everyone if it were taught effectively. (*b*) Remove all fixed requirements within subjects. They hold that requirements are needed only when pupils are apathetic. If really interested, they will set adequate requirements for themselves. (*c*) Remove all disagreeable chores and

artificial incentives which can be used to cover up ineffective teaching and as a club over the pupil. (*d*) Remove to college level any subjects that the pupil would need in college—that is, strictly college preparatory subjects. The general attitude was against *working for* a teacher in subjects the teacher thought were worthwhile. Pupils wanted the teacher to *work with them* on things that they thought were worthwhile. This is a profound observation which, of course, is reflected in their recommendation concerning personnel.

Second, in a more positive way, pupils would like opportunity to: (*a*) Find out what they are capable of doing in life and obtain preparation for such occupation. (*b*) Learn how to get and hold a job (*c*) Learn how to use leisure wisely. (*d*) Learn something about home and family life. (*e*) Learn how to work with resources other than books, since they felt the dead weight of emphasis on "books, books, nothing but books." (*f*) Do fewer things each day and give more time to each. (*g*) Participate in more activities that would take them out into the community, "So that we can know what is going on." (*h*) Discuss their personal problems with some understanding, sympathetic person. (*i*) Obtain help in making intelligent judgments as to "what we should believe when so many people tell us different things. We don't know what to do or believe." Certainly this list of suggestions shows genuine insight into what pupils consider to be their real needs.

The third recommendation is that pupils be given an opportunity to share in the management of the school. They offer three reasons:

First, they feel that desirable changes in personnel, in personal relations, and in the curriculum, will never be realized under the present management of the school. There is too much tradition to be worshipped, too many rules and regulations to be upheld. So long as control of the school lies with vested interests, they believe little real change will take place.

Second, they believe that pupils have more "stake" in the school than the staff. The school exists to promote the best possible learning among pupils. They are very sure that this is impossible under the present curriculum and management of the schools. The insight of many pupils into the differences between teaching and learning is remarkable. They may not have the technical terms, but they have all the ideas and express them clearly and effectively. Pupils believe that those with the greatest stake in the schools should have large responsibility in its management. They do not want to leave management to those with a minority interest.

Third, they believe that sharing

in the management of the school will give them far better insight and practice in democratic living than any courses or processes now operating in the school. They have no illusions about the value of textbook study of history, civics, and democracy. They see clearly through the sham of teaching them, from a book or syllabus, character traits and ethical virtues which they cannot see demonstrated among the staff members and in the relationships of staff and pupils. They recognize that student government usually exists only in name, for the real problems of governing the school are not brought up for consideration. Pupils do not even feel free to discuss them frankly; they feel that they have no "civil liberties."

The boys and girls who make these recommendations are sincere and earnest. They are not "sore at" the management of the school. They are just terribly worried. They are worried over the uselessness of what they must learn when the school gives them no help with matters of vastly greater importance. They are worried over getting a job, selecting a mate, having a home, rearing children. They are worried over the futility of life in a world of unbridled chaos. They are worried over what to believe in—and they find no intelligent guideposts in their past educational experience. The school can help them. The school must help them.

[*L. Thomas Hopkins is Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University. Reported from the* Teachers College Record, *XLII (November, 1940), 116-22.*]

THE percentage of high school graduates continuing their education has risen somewhat from the low point of 25.1 reached in 1933, according to the U. S. Office of Education, but is still far below the percentages registered in 1921 of 46.2 and in 1929 of 44.3. To a considerable extent this drop, especially in 1933, may be explained by economic inability to continue in school. A more fundamental and abiding reason for the drop as well as the failure of the rebound to carry further than it has is, probably, to be found in the fact that with ever mounting enrolments a growing proportion of pupils regard the high school as the terminal educational institution they will attend.

YOUTH WILL NOT FAIL AMERICA

DOUGLAS SOTHALL FREEMAN

In the Virginia Journal of Education

THE general pattern of America's approach to the possibility of involvement in the war is reasonably distinct. Nobody regards American participation as a high adventure. There is no "war fever." God is not assumed to be wearing our particular shade of olive drab. No bragging of national invincibility is audible. Negatives stud the mind as they do these sentences. Americans have no desire to fight, but they have detestation for Hitler's broken promises, for his enslavement of small nations, for the terrorism spread by his Gestapo, and for the violence of his designs.

Deviations from this pattern, like those from acceptance of a given economic order, are primarily circumstantial. Those Americans with closest ties to France or Britain are, as a rule, most vehemently interventionist in feeling. Pro-war sentiment is stronger on the Atlantic seaboard than in the Midwest. There are other deviations from pattern—an executive more pro-British than is Congress, an army that despairs and a navy that is confident of Britain's success. We are here concerned with the deviation from pattern represented by teachers and students.

Am I mistaken in saying that those in academic life are less heartily for the President's full program of hemispherical defense than are most classes? Have I been misled in concluding that a majority of students are, if anything, farther in dissent than are their teachers? Is it not a fact that the academic world is the element most critical of arguments for intervention? What other element is so suspicious that every utterance may cover propaganda, and that what is paraded as patriotism may be, in reality, fear or class-interest?

This is as it should be. Were it otherwise, much recent instruction would have been in vain. The teacher who conducted a course in recent European history inveighed daily against the enticements used to bring the United States into the World War, against the iniquities of the Treaty of Versailles. Days were devoted to explaining how the treaty created new resentments. Propaganda was analyzed and deplored. Students were exhorted in the name of intellectual honesty to beware of the historical black that looked white, or light gray. After all this, it could hardly be expected that on September 2, 1939, students would accept an entirely new version of the history of contemporary Europe, and assume that everything said in London and Paris on behalf of Britain and France was free of any taint of propaganda.

To put the question in this form is to absolve teachers of the charge

of being unpatriotic and students of the charge—made with shaking head in despairing tones—that they have become soft, that they are unworthy of their stock. Let no man misunderstand or misrepresent American youth. The distrust reflected in the boys' response to political appeals is not cowardice, and it is not sympathy with either communism or Fascism. It is the result of the London Treaty of 1915 that brought Italy into the World War; it is the fruit of the long reparations wrangle; it is part of the price France paid for occupation of the Ruhr; it is the inevitable consequence of making the Council of the League of Nations a conclave of victors; it is one item in the bill the powers have to meet for refusing to limit armaments. The view of the academic world toward war is compounded of all these things, honestly taught and honestly studied. The final collapse of the disarmament conference, to which the United States would send only an "observer," came when Roosevelt had been in the White House more than a year.

In the sinister light of these facts, American boys would be justified in crying with the French soldiers who swarmed back, leaderless, from the Seine, "We have been betrayed!" To their eternal credit, instead of saying this, millions of American youth are determined to redeem mistakes that they cannot forgive. There is nothing unreasonable or unwholesome in the attitude of American youth today. There is resentment against, and opposition to, the wastage of blood and treasure in a war of the type that would assure nothing—save another war.

If I interpret their views aright, the majority of those in academic pursuits are not deceived for a moment by talk of "limited war." We heard that before—in 1917. All that was desired of us then was money, munitions, and, above all, ships. We had been in the war 26 days when the press first reported that Marshall Joffre and M. Viviani had suggested the wisdom of sending American troops to France. Soon we were told that the Allies must have every soldier we could possibly dispatch. This may not be known to many youths, and it may have been forgotten by their elders, but it is fresh in the minds of students. They do not intend to mislead now, or to be misled. If it is war America must face, it will be total war.

Second, it seems to me American students have a realistic conception of war aims. They do not ignore the arguments for a preventive military war, but they insist that we do not wage such a war for economic ends. The warnings of columnists and diplomatico-economists that we had better destroy Germany to escape a trade war in South America cannot be said to leave academic men and women cold. The argument makes

them hot. I have yet to hear any boy of military age express enthusiasm for a war that will leave more beef in Argentina for the United States to bar under a high tariff and an unreasonable sanitary cordon.

The final insistence of teacher and student may be covered, I think, by the term proportionate, disciplined risk. In the nature of things, the burden of preparation and the risks in the hour of danger cannot be distributed equally among our population. The load must fall unequally, but it should fall proportionately to the strength of shoulders and heart. Those who have not forgotten the profiteers of 1917 insist that when there is to be a draft of man-power, let there be a draft of money-power as well. If youth must be disciplined to its task, shape that discipline for intelligent minds and do not debase it with hate or the mass emotionalism of the mob mind. We approve the censorship that conceals military news of aid to an enemy, but we denounce the censorship that hides administrative blunders.

Is it said that these propositions are virtual demands and that they exhibit to all traitors a division among Americans? Are we angrily asked: When did youth every dare set forth the terms on which it would or would not fight to maintain its inherited liberties? The answer is that this generation has been taught too well and too honestly the lessons of earlier wars to be deceived concerning the implications of this one. Boys who raise embarrassing questions about intervention have been reared in frankness. When their nation is threatened, they will fight—be sure of that! But they insist on knowing in advance the rules by which the politicians and the diplomats and the industrialists, as well as they themselves, are to be bound. Youth is not defying its seniors; it challenges them. It will not fail America, but it will exact, as it will give, of every man his best.

[*Douglas Sothall Freeman is Editor of the Richmond, Virginia, News Leader. Reported from the* Virginia Journal of Education, *XXXIV (October, 1940), 7-9.*]

THE U. S. Office of Education reports that the average American high school enrolls 301.8 pupils, has 12.3 teachers and other staff members, and averages 24.6 pupils per teacher. During the past few years the schools as a rule have become larger while the pupil-teacher ratio has gone down slightly.

A DISINTEGRATED TEACHER

GEORGE H. HENRY

In the English Journal

FOR over 15 years, English teaching has been for me a befuddled shifting of purpose. As I look back over a series of disillusionments, I wonder what it must have been like to teach in a generation when one had an unwavering faith in the Great Tradition of Chaucer, Milton, and Shakespeare seriously to affect the lives of most pupils.

Hardly over 21, I saw my first English class as a collection of "souls"—some "dull," some "bright," all highly susceptible to an inspired word, hint, or touch. Fresh from the thrill of seeing my first Greek statute and from literally hugging the ground in pantheistic delight after discovering Wordsworth, I had a certainty that my 34 seniors in this small coast-guard, fishing, pilot-boat community were just as anxious to feel what I felt.

After two years I had to admit—privately at first—that not 15 of the 200 youngsters I had faced were able to be reached through the classics, that practically all were impervious to grammar, style, and verbal selfexpression. Actually, there was a fundamental antagonism to too much education, and the community as a whole would have been suspicious of the Great Tradition as something foreign if they had known of its existence. During these two years in which I tried to give my pupils respect for what I considered learning they chased two teachers out of town and hurled a brick through the superintendent's window. Meanwhile I would go home at night to the metaphysical poets to escape my discouraging classroom and to declare my secret allegiance to the Great Tradition, that was shamelessly mistreated under my very nose all day long.

But gradually, forgetting my nightly rendezvous with the classics, absorbed in studying this new world of adolescence, I grew inordinately to like the hellions, and for that reason they liked me. Youth showed me another world, and I was liking the process. Pupils, I noted helplessly, were taking me in tow and overhauling my education. What great days I owe them!

The time we found the nest of blacksnakes and, not caring to kill them, let them wrap around arms and legs. The boys and I asleep on the pine needles, awakened by the dawn stuck in our gummy eyes. Why read about the west wind when we could have it on the cheek? We followed the trails of turtles across the dunes. Was not the ghost of Thoreau with pupils then, whether they could read him or not? Sensuousness, I noticed, was youth's open road to the classics—they already had what they could not read: "Il Penseroso," Conrad's moods,

Masefield's sea, Brooke's "The Great Lover." But these pupils could enter the Great Tradition only so long as I translated these works into their own words or, given a situation, found lines to match it. Rowing along the black-beaded islands as the church bell rang at sundown, I could recite:

> Oft, on a plat of rising ground
> I hear a far-off curfew sound
> Over some wide-watered shore. . .

And silence would testify to what was happening inside the crew of the sailing dory.

That I had drifted into a second phase of teaching became obvious after an experience I had resting beside Carl between quarters of a basketball game. As we sprawled side by side I was amazed how, in profile, his leg looked exactly like mine, as if his leg and mine might support a similar torso—the owner of the same being, the same mind. But what a gulf separated us! He, nonreader, lazy, halting, rebellious; I, secretly proud that I could identify the school of Scopias or discuss the pointillism of the Impressionists. As we panted to regain our breath, the Great Tradition could not have taught me what I learned at that moment; how fate had endowed me with what Carl would never know; that for this reason I must be his keeper. What, realistically, could I do for the innumerable Carls?

Partly because of searching for a process to help him, and more, probably, because of the testing program of the state department—I'm not quite sure—I began tabulating everybody by norms and tests, to know pupils better, not being skeptical enough to inquire how a test could tell me more than sleeping with them under a poncho. The evangelistic method had given way to the scientific.

It was wayward flesh again, in the person of Bill, that took me out of this scientific phase. As a ninth-grader, Bill watched me work on my sloop in the spring, until he could contain himself no longer and gingerly picked up brush or sandpaper and slyly helped a bit—and at last came daily. To reward him I took him sailing for two weeks at a time, so that his being a schoolboy was obliterated by a hundred acts—pulling up an anchor in such a way that mud did not dirty the bowsprit, frying bacon to my taste, holding the searchlight during the northeast gale as we made for a cove, where once we were marooned for three days. Then, in his tenth year, previous to his promotion to me, I looked up his record to see what kind of "pupil"—not human being; I knew that already—he was going to be. There it was: spelling, 6.5; vocabulary, 8.0; reading comprehension, 7.6. Bill was definitely "inferior."

Poor Bill! For my sake he tried very hard to be a good English student. His tests, after remedial-reading tutoring, revealed great gains, but I clearly saw that they made no

appreciable differences in Bill's genuine reading interests, his ability to decipher Browning, and his awkward sentence structure, which was "like a man walking in mud over his boot-tops," as Bill himself put it. I didn't lose faith in Bill, but I did in the scientific method. Bill was still the same old Bill; good to be around.

There is no doubt that my method of evangelism, or contagion, was conditioned by the prevailing optimism of the late Twenties. Then came the crash, and with it education for me needed a complete restatement. It lost its absolute aspect and was conditioned, so I thought, by the basic elements that provided a milieu for it to take place in—freedom, for example, and human dignity, and release from animal necessities.

I might call my third phase the "welfare attitude," as more and more of my time was consumed by social work—maladjustment resulting from unwholesome environment, disciplinary problems rooted in economic stress. I drove around with the Red Cross worker until I was haunted, for "I had seen their faces," had seen them every day in school without knowing them—children whose home life was so limited that they had no content for words they were to learn. I lost heart in the great purple patches. What stuff to give pupils who had all they could do to keep the belly full! I asked both the Great Tradition and the objective tests what I should do, but there was no answer.

But the depression went on, and since one couldn't wait for society to change, timidly I myself decided to change. Experimenting, I built a course around the radio, the newspaper, the movies, and the pulp magazines, and to my astonishment and satisfaction heard pupils say it was the most profitable and wonderful experience in all their 12 years of schooling; and with delight I tabulated many tangible outcomes of the course.

I was now in a fourth stage before I was aware. Doubts assailed me, for I now had definitely broken with the Great Tradition. Was I really teaching English? Wasn't it more like social science? But what is English and what is social science? If education is to exalt, to liberate, to sensitize, to project us into other realms besides our own, I asked why I shouldn't strike out directly for these goals and not let "English" and "history" and "science" stand in the way. The concept "English," I mused, has often been a fetish of the printed word—a hangover from the childlike fascination with print begun in the Renaissance, an era which has led us all to accept the mere dissemination of knowledge as the panacea for most problems.

With something of my old fervor I declared that if a book couldn't accomplish these ends, we'd accomplish them without a book; if 25 percent of my juniors and seniors

could not read beyond the sixth-grade level, I would forget English in its conventional sense and teach directly by the spoken word, and by radio and by motion picture. For me, the crisis in democratic education can be put thus: If as many as 40 percent of all pupils are unable to read the great masterpieces with profit, then the exigencies of citizenship and of spiritual survival demand that schools teach the Great Tradition *in some other way.* And English must rightfully lead in that search.

To be disillusioned about English teaching is not important, because English teaching is not important; to be disillusioned about young people would be equivalent to my personal doom—these youths are the only positive force I have left in these troubled times. I think of young people in that way that Paul Rosenfield wrote about the Renaissance painters: " . . . one suddenly finds oneself in a world of strangely selfconfident creatures; of surprising, energetic, able individuals who delighted in their personalities, knowing they contained the seeds of universal life." Sometimes I study a roomful of youths and say to myself: "The men who put Christ to death were once as blithely young as these. The men of the Inquisition were once as fresh and gay. The millions who slit and gouged in the World War were once so clumsy-snickering at spring." These young people seem incapable of those gruesome blots on mankind that happened before their birth. How I can keep alive and healthy what is already in them is my task in English now.

[*George H. Henry is Principal of the Senior High School at Dover, Delaware. Reported from the* English Journal, *XXIX (November, 1940), 719-28.*]

ACCORDING to an Associated Press dispatch, the football team of the University of New Mexico this year is using Spanish phrases and sentences for giving their defensive signals. Coach Shipkey and Professor F. M. Kercheville of the Department of Romance Languages are cooperating on the idea. We venture to go a step further and to suggest that, in order to make the signals even more effective, a different language be used each quarter, French the first, German the second, Italian the third, and Spanish the fourth—*Modern Language Journal.*

DIFFERENTIATED HIGH SCHOOLS

ALEXANDER EFRON

In the Educational Forum

WHILE the forerunners of the present American secondary school —the Latin grammar school, the academy, and the classical high school—closely resembled certain contemporary European institutions, American secondary education has become much wider in scope than its European counterpart, more democratic in design, more concerned with the latest contributions of educational psychology and mental hygiene. Traditional Europe is still committed to an artificially selective secondary education which, in the main, educates the future elite, while the American high school has gradually assumed the role of a "people's college."

The strong and weak points in each system have by now been fully established, and need not be enumerated here. However, it is noteworthy that neither here nor abroad is there yet evidence of an educational procedure that fully meets the needs of a large number of students of diverse interests, aptitudes, and abilities.

American educators at present meet the challenge of individual differences by establishing within the framework of the single comprehensive high school a number of different curriculums or courses of study. We thus have the traditional academic, the less rigorous "general," and the more practical commercial, arts and crafts, homemaking, and other courses. Further differentiation is established by an elaborate system of combinations of courses. About one-fourth of our high schools also employ the mechanics of ability-grouping, the Dalton or Winnetka plans, the Morrison Study Plan, supervised study, the differentiated assignment, and other procedures.

This endless differentiation of courses is often carried to extremes. Not only are many different curriculums established, but within the same curriculum several different "kinds" of mathematics, science, English, or foreign languages may be offered—college-entrance chemistry and applied chemistry, regular and so-called "culture" classes in foreign languages, etc.

The nonacademic pupil (assuredly an anomaly in an academic high school) may profit by having the stigma of failure removed from his mediocre achievement; on the other hand, the low standard of performance set before him cannot impel him to much selfexertion.

As for the superior student, the report of the Regents' Inquiry found that in New York state "ability grouping is seldom accompanied by the provision of systematically differentiated curriculums." Miller and Blaydes, complaining of the lack of attention devoted to the

superior student, assert that when special attention has been given to such students "it has usually taken the form of crowding more of the same mental pabulum down their intellectual throats in a relatively shorter interval of time. If the kind of effort required of the student is not different. . . . if the selected group does merely the same routine in less time or more of it in the same time, then the effort put forth in their behalf is wasted."

Finally, in a critical article on individual differences Smith comments on the anomaly of widening the differences by promoting the individual's peculiar interests and abilities, while at the same time holding to the philosophy that the main purpose of the school is to promote social efficiency and cooperation which require the possession of common controls of conduct. He asserts that "plans designed to provide for individual differences have almost universally encouraged further specialization while we have been rapidly swinging to the view that the fundamental purpose of the secondary school is general education."

Is it any wonder that our secondary education is planless?

In the light of the above, the writer would like to propose that, having experimented sporadically and fruitlessly with the differentiation of instruction within the same school organization, we now give consideration to the possibility of *differentiating school organizations instead.* The establishment of such separate institutions, each small enough to care adequately for its own carefully selected clientele, would rid us of the present confusion of purpose and wasteful duplication of effort. Instead of endlessly differentiating courses, with the inevitable lowering of standards and a resulting dilution of *all* our secondary education, we would differentiate our schools. Unlike Europe, where separate institutions serve economically distinct groups, our version of the separate-school idea would still rest on the basic American belief in free tuition and the right of admission democratically granted to all who are able to profit by the particular form of education in question.

The first link in this chain of secondary schools would be the comprehensive or neighborhood high school. With the transfer to special academic or vocational high schools of those students who manifest special intellectual or vocational aptitudes, the resulting *materially homogeneous* population of the general high school could well devote itself to an exploration of the common cultural elements of American life as its single all-inclusive objective. Integration must be the very heart of any proposed reorganization of the general high school. One might actually start by abolishing all subject sequences and insisting that every subject justify itself on the

sole basis of the contribution it can make to the total program of general education.

The special or differentiated high school will present a different picture. The program here will be one of general education, but it will have a definite intellectual orientation, or "bias." The IQ alone should not determine admission to this school; a special school for the bright has no *raison d'être* in a democratic society such as ours. Admission should be based on a variety of aptitude and prognosis tests, interest inventories, school records, achievement and intelligence tests—the determining factor being ability to profit by a special, differentiated curriculum.

What is to be the guiding principle of the special high school? Obviously general education cannot be ignored. But the subjects will be presented from a slightly different point of view; their justification must be sought in their support of the school's dominant keynote, as well as in their contribution to general culture. Thus, in a science-oriented school, every subject included in the core curriculum must contribute to the development of the scientific orientation of the student. Whatever the orientation of the school—to science, music, arts and crafts, etc.—there will be a carefully laid foundation of general education, with a superstructure of special courses requiring for their grasp the possession of unmistakable interests and aptitudes.

Obviously such a program of education must be flexible, with a continuous program of aptitude and ability testing, efficient individual guidance, and provision for ready horizontal transfer from one form of secondary education to another.

The third vital form of secondary education will be provided by vocational high schools, in which a sound base of general education is followed by some form of vocational specialization. Here we must guard against the error, so often committed in the past, of consigning to the vocational schools our academic misfits. A low IQ should not serve as an argument for vocational rather than general education, and the vocational high school should not be regarded as a dumping ground for the low-ability pupil not wanted elsewhere.

This proposal for differentiated high schools is no echo of the European system of "schools for the classes and schools for the masses." Instead, it envisages a democratic selection of pupils on the sole basis of aptitude and general fitness.

[*Alexander Efron is Chairman of the Department of Science, John Adams High School, Ozone Park, N. Y. Reported from the* Educational Forum, *V (November, 1940), 57-69.*]

MASS DEBATING

HARGIS WESTERFIELD

In the Quarterly Journal of Speech

INTERSCHOLASTIC debating is as popular as football in Central Kentucky. Little Georgetown, with 150 pupils, has 25 active debaters and has already carried on 94 contests in six weeks' time. This is typical of schools in the region.

Now that it has actually happened, the inevitability of mass debating in the high schools is easy to demonstrate. Business men of the towns argued that speaking ought to deserve as important a place in education as impelling a bag of wind over goal-posts. They earmarked funds to purchase debate materials and defray transportation costs. The returns from this investment have been adequate. Georgetown's 94 debates cost an average of 54 cents per contest. Increased interest has come with the two-man team, and the heightened clash made possible by four five-minute rebuttal speeches. Good roads and automobiles have facilitated nocturnal visits among schools.

But mere changed conditions do not automatically result in multiple-team systems of debating. The activity, to a great extent, has had to be incorporated into the regular teaching program. At Georgetown, debating is an end-product of speech work carried on in every English class. Freshmen have barely signed the roll when they are told that they must introduce themselves, the instructor giving them a sample introduction.

During the first full-time class period, the instructor calmly sits in the rear of the room and informs the class that volunteers are expected. First speakers get higher grades; and later boys and girls are pitted against one another. They volunteer readily; little coaxing is required. From then on, at least one day a week will be devoted to a combination of required and free speaking before the class. As the semester draws on, pupils exercise increasing ability in discovering new topics for discussion from the life of the school, movies, magazines, and the like.

At first the class as a whole is criticized; later, individuals will be prompted. Group drills are given; the children are instructed how to stand, what to do with their hands, how to look at an audience. If the speech is limited to three sentences, even a class of 40 or more can be covered in a single class period.

A weekly class of this kind recommends itself for several reasons. It centers the burden of acceptable work on the child. It develops personality. It gives the teacher a chance to hear the American language as it is spoken, and to make the necessary corrections. Daily speeches both cut down the drudgery of marking papers and lay the basis for work in debating. The oral

book-review is an obvious adjunct of the speech program, and the desire of pupils to elect class officers leads naturally to a project in parliamentary law.

Group speech activities of this type formed the soil from which mass debating was engendered. Georgetown freshmen began actually to debate two years ago. On the October morning when Hitler occupied the Sudetenland a speaker in class condemned him, but the boy who stood up next cited evidence to prove *der Fuehrer* blameless. The instructor emphasized the clash of opinion and suggested a debate. Each boy enlisted a friend to assist him, and marched in after school to learn the standard debate contest rules. A week later, the entire class period was devoted to this verbal conflict promoted by Adolph Hitler and the teacher. While four other freshmen were seeking an excuse to argue before the same audience, the Arabs and Jews obliged us by getting into difficulties. After a few such parleys it was not difficult to inveigle eight first-year pupils into interscholastic debates.

To build up the incentives and traditions required for interscholastic contests a specialized oral English class is offered in exchange for any regular English year except the first. Full credit is given toward graduation. The class is limited to 16, and a *B* average is required for admission. This class is intentionally debate-centered and requires participation in contest debating.

Rewards for debating are as high as those for football. Letters are conferred, and when Georgetown is host at a debate rally, the entire school enjoys a half-holiday.

Mass debating at Georgetown will now be seen as the resultant of diverse forces. Subsidizing by the taxpayers, emphasis on speech work in English classes, and provision of credit toward graduation, laid the foundation. Placing forensics on a par with athletics and the building of a forensic-minded public have been major incentives. The cumulative effect of this mass debating program on the community becomes increasingly evident each year, as more alumni return with zest to judge or merely to listen.

[*Hargis Westerfield coaches debating at Garth High School, Georgetown, Kentucky. Reported from the* Quarterly Journal of Speech, *XXVI (October, 1940), 420-26.*]

THERE are approximately 21,550,000 elementary pupils and 725,000 teachers in public and private schools this year, according to the U. S. Office of Education.

UNCLE SAM DEVELOPS A NEW KIND OF RURAL SCHOOL

WILLARD W. BEATTY

In the Elementary School Journal

INDIAN education in the United States, until recently, has been essentially an attempt to wean Indian youth away from the native culture, which the authorities deemed to be evil. In the Indian boarding schools, little children were separated from their parents and continuously subjected, over a long span of years, to exclusive contact with white ideals and white culture.

Experience early demonstrated the failure of this educational scheme. Indian youth were not attracted to the cities, nor were they welcome. They returned to the reservation. The skilled trades they had been taught were useless to them and, on the other hand, they lacked the basic skills necessary to make a living from the resources open to them. Further, if they were to be accepted by relatives and associates and admitted to participation in community life, they were virtually forced to assume the Indian way of life.

In recognition of these facts, a decade ago the Indian Service began the development of a new type of school, which may have great significance for American public education. The new Indian day schools are located on the reservations. In close contact with Indian life, they not only influence the homes but are, in turn, influenced by them to give a type of education realistically calculated to serve the needs of the Indian community. The same point of view led to the development of vocational schools designed to prepare Indian youth to use the natural resources still in Indian ownership. These schools are alive with a new concept of community service which could do as much to improve rural white living as it is attempting to improve rural Indian living.

The Indian rural day school is a new kind of educational institution in the United States. It is built, first of all, on a clear recognition of the facts that the wealth and resources of most Indians are inadequate and that many of the necessities of white life are either impossible of achievement or unwanted in the Indian home. For example, in some Arizona and Dakota reservations supplies of potable water are scarce. Homes are often located several miles from a spring or stream; in some cases seasonal migrations are necessitated by failure of the water supply.

In these areas, where possible, the first concern of the day school has been a water supply. Deep wells have made possible permanence of habitation for many Indians who in the past had been forced to seasonal migration. Where irrigation water is available school gardens teach the

children the cultivation of fruits and vegetables suitable to the area. Often these school gardens have been nuclei for community gardens, with many adult Indians participating. As the program advances, livestock are added. Children are taught to care for milk goats, poultry, hogs, milk cows, or cattle. As they become interested and proficient, it is made possible for the children or their parents to acquire ownership of livestock, either through labor performed for the school or by turning back to the school the first offspring of the parent stock. While this kind of rehabilitation is slow, it is likely to be permanent because both children and adults have cooperated in the program and because it is not something superimposed regardless of the community's prejudices.

These schools exploit to the full the possibilities of community service. In addition to water for drinking and irrigation, they supply facilities for bathing and laundry. Bathing facilities provided for the children are often used by most of the adults, and Indian women bring the family wash from distances of 10 and 20 miles. The women use the school's sewing machines and worktables for making and repairing clothing, while the men make corresponding use of the school shops and machinery. Some of the schools undertake projects in which the older boys cooperate with the men of the community to repair and improve individual homes. The school kitchens, where the girls help to prepare the noon meal from supplies grown in their own gardens, are also used to teach Indian women how to enrich the home diet of their families.

Each school has one qualified teacher for each 30 children. About one-fourth of these teachers in day schools are partly or wholly of Indian blood.

These day-school programs have brought adults of the community to the schools in steadily increasing numbers. As an outcome health clinics, serving both youth and adults, have been incorporated in the schools.

Another outcome has been an increased interest in English among Indians who, despite long contact with whites, had resisted the acquisition of English. This interest was first manifest in the oftexpressed desire that their children learn English and then by the request for adult English classes.

Increasingly the day-school plant has become a center for community activities—meetings to discuss problems of community government, relief, agricultural practices, and organizations for the renewal and perpetuation of craft skills. Dances —both white and native—are held at the schools. The larger buildings have libraries. Gymnasiums and athletic fields are increasing in number, and are open as much to the community as to the children. In

some cases Indian ceremonials are beginning to center in the school plant or playground.

Between 1929 and 1939 the number of day schools increased from 131 to 212, and the services furnished by and through the schools have grown tremendously. During the same period, the number of nonreservation boarding schools was reduced from 74 to 49. Reservation boarding schools have been transformed into vocational high schools. Residential high schools are necessary on the large reservations where populations are so scattered that, even with efficient bus service, the day school's service area is limited to a radius of approximately 20 miles.

In the reservation high schools, increasing attention is paid to intelligent utilization of the area's natural resources. For example, at Pine Ridge, South Dakota—a Sioux reservation of some 9,000 Indians who still hold title to 1,500,000 acres of grazing land—the high school has developed a program centering in land use. The pupils of this school learn the cattle business by assuming complete care of cattle herds grazing over 35,000 acres of reserved land. The use of irrigation for the production of subsistence crops is taught to both boys and girls. The science courses are concerned with land and land use, plant and animal improvement. The shops teach farm mechanics. The girls learn gardening, the care of small livestock, and home and native handicrafts.

In Oklahoma, the Indian agricultural schools place emphasis on dry farming and irrigation techniques. In these schools experience includes beef and dairy cattle, small livestock, and handicrafts.

In the Southwest the basic program is also agricultural, with emphasis on the improvement and perpetuation of native handicrafts, which are much more alive here than in some northern areas.

Vocational schools emphasizing skilled trades are maintained for some of the mixed bloods whose tendency is toward assimilation. These schools suit their training to the needs of the particular area, and adjust the program to changing needs.

In large areas, such as the Navajo and Sioux reservations, where many older Indians do not speak English, a bi-lingual educational program is being undertaken.

Willard W. Beatty is Director of Education, U. S. Office of Indian Affairs. Reported from the Elementary School Journal, *XLI (November, 1940), 185-94.*

PUBLIC RELATIONS POINTERS

E. R. VAN KLEECK
In Education

"WE don't know where we're going but we're on our way," is apparently the slogan of too many school public relations practitioners. Everybody has become publicity conscious and propaganda conscious. "Public relations" is becoming a shibboleth. Newspaper men are received with courtesy, switchboard operators are sent to school to learn to talk pleasantly, receptionists are instructed to make sure the well-dressed stranger *is* selling disinfectant before diverting him. And doubtless all this is to the good. But the trouble is that too many school systems are, by some of their public relations activities, doing themselves actual harm.

Suggestion Number One, then, is this: decide just what concepts one wishes to get over to the public. These will differ from community to community. If the public is disturbed because it thinks the schools have "gone off the deep end" on "progressive" education, is it wise to keep feeding the local newspapers stories that will serve to confirm their worst suspicions? Wouldn't it be better to emphasize the school's interest in the three R's, or the committees that are studying the arithmetic problem (they always are!) or the fact that the semi-annual standardized testing program has just been completed, and so on.

These suggestions can be ignored if the goal (as too often seems to be the case) is professional exploitation of an individual or a school system—"Superintendent Smarty" or his famous "Podunk Plan." But if the object is to suggest economy in school administration, certain types of news story will be discouraged.

Pointer Number Two would be: Don't judge the success of a public relations program by the number of column inches of school material you can cut out and paste in your scrapbook. Mr. Hitler has been getting plenty of space in the papers lately, but it hasn't resulted in endearing him to the general public. Some of the most successful campaigns, judged from the volume of material printed, have been conducted by men who subsequently found themselves looking for jobs. It is ironical that some older school men, who never learned anything about public relations and have no intention of remedying the matter, are often far better practitioners than those who have taken Doctor So-and-So's indispensable summer course on how to win boards of education and influence taxpayers. What these older men have is a knowledge of human nature and plenty of common sense.

Point Number Three, therefore, might well be: Don't overdo it. It should be mentioned also that the newspaper, while important, is not the only avenue for reaching the

public. There are other media, some of which are often more useful. It depends on the community.

Pointer Number Four is: Learn from your opposition. By the "opposition" I mean those groups who, under one fancy name or another, are out to cut public-school expenditures, and don't much care how they do it. These groups are cleverer and better organized than ever before. They've learned from their experiences in the 1930's. They aren't going to repeat *all* the mistakes of that era. Their technique is subtler than it was even five years ago. They aren't against schools now. Perish the thought! Some of them almost *love* the schools. They are all for the schools—but—they merely want to "fact-find." They merely want to be of service to the unbusiness-like school people in handling what is, after all, a big business—the education of millions of pupils at a cost of billions a year.

It is true that our 1940 critics sometimes get their "facts" a bit mixed, and this indicates a danger that we should avoid. They advertise nationally that 6,000 irate taxpayers march on the New York state capitol demanding lower school costs. They forgot to mention that there were only 4,000 marchers and that somewhat more than 3,000 of them, representing PTA's and University Women and Farm and Home Bureaus, and so on, were there to ask for more instead of less school money. They compare an urban state like New York with one confronting wholly different problems, to the disadvantage of the former—in fact to the disadvantage of both when that can be managed. In my own state of Michigan they try to play off the outstate school people against the city slickers in the metropolitan area so that both will end up with lessened revenues.

Pointer Number Five, then, is: Get your facts straight. The arithmetic of school critics is often weak. They get mixed up on unit costs and they have trouble straightening out this business of operating and debt-service costs. Sometimes, in exasperation, they make such charges as, for example, that children finishing the sixth grade can't read. When they do this we should all cheer, because any parent (even if his child went to a school out on the lunatic fringe of "progressivism") knows that his youngster read better at the end of the third grade than most of us did when we finished the sixth. And, incidentally, it is too bad when publicity-hungry young university presidents are so interested in selfexploitation that they provide these critics with anything that can be twisted to support their case.

But, by and large, the critics aren't blundering so much. They are better financed and better organized. They exchange information from state to state. And they are utilizing the advantages of the indirect approach.

In so doing they illustrate Pointer Number Six: "There is more than one way to skin a cat."

For example, just the other day the tiny magazine distributed by (of all things) a manufacturer of janitorial supplies printed a piece entitled: "A Little More Schooling." It told how teachers, "after they get on the public payroll," are encouraged by means of a "bonus" to get higher degrees. It showed how an elementary teacher getting "her maximum pay of $2400 a year" might with another degree go to $2880. It showed how this raise "is more than you could get from a $12,000 annuity." (There was, of course, no mention of the fact that a majority of the nation's teachers get a third to a half of "$2400 a year.") There was no direct attack on teachers' salaries, but the effect was probably greater than would have been produced by direct onslaught. That's what I mean by the indirect approach.

We should profit by studying the technique of others. The strategy of those who would tear down the schools now seems to be: Don't attack school costs directly; instead break down public confidence in the schools. Don't say: "We must reduce school taxes." Instead, hunt through textbooks for passages that can be ripped out of their context and be made to sound as though our teachers (the most patriotic—and conservative—group in the nation) are really fifth-columnist Nazis or communists, or, better still, individuals combining the worst features of both.

Their idea won't work, though it may have temporary and local successes, due to the stress of the times. In the main, the American people will not be deceived permanently. And the more effective we are in defense of the schools—in the practice of sound public relations—the less will be the damage and the sooner it will be repaired.

[*E. R. Van Kleeck is Superintendent of Schools, Grosse Pointe, Michigan. Reported from* Education, *LXI (November, 1940), 154-57.*]

AT the Grosse Pointe, Michigan, High School, the students' production of Thornton Wilder's *Our Town* is to be preserved in part by phonograph recordings which the young actors have been making under the direction of their sponsor, Donald Horton, of the faculty. The play, produced three evenings, used duplicate castings for the chief roles of George and Emily and it won wide critical acclaim.

LAUGHTER AND TEACHERS

FLORENCE BRUMBAUGH
In Educational Method

IT has been accepted by almost every theorist who has tried to explain why laughter occurs that the mistakes of others are frequent causes of laughter, yet in a recent investigation of 1600 children in grades three to six, inclusive, there was little proof that this belief was true.

Anecdotal records kept by trained observers in 45 classrooms indicated that much more often the laughter was induced by the teacher's remarks, which were seldom kindly in nature. Not only did exasperated teachers give vent to sarcasm and cruel comments, but they also resorted to the infantile reaction of "calling names." Children responded with laughter when their classmates were called "featherhead," "dope," "noisy old woman," "schlemiel" (fool), or worse.

Wickman has said: "Wounding the child's pride, selfrespect, and personal integrity may not have the sinister appearance of corporal punishment, but it leaves its mark more surely upon children, and relieves the tension of the adult." Apparently many of the teachers observed saw no harm in such forms of control.

Children laughed at the embarrassment of their schoolmates when teachers mimicked their speech and posture. Victims of the adult's remarks blushed, stammered, stuttered, sucked their fingers, bit their finger nails, and chewed their ties. They knotted their hair in an effort to appear nonchalant. All of these signs of nervousness were laughed at by other pupils who appeared to enjoy the misfortunes of others. They looked to the teacher for their cue. If her expression led them to believe that laughter was permissible, they complied. In other instances control was exercised.

A questionnaire which was answered by the pupils showed that the children ranked the behavior of teachers which caused them to laugh as follows: (1) telling funny stories; (2) telling jokes; (3) reading funny stories. They placed punishment and sarcasm at the bottom. These data seem to indicate wishful thinking or long memories, for there was little evidence that funny stories or jokes were read or told, but much to show that the anger of the adult was funny to them, and that they realized that when they were laughing with and not at her, no disastrous results would follow.

Some teachers retained the playful spirit of childhood and enlisted the aid of humor in problems of discipline. These were found in classrooms where there was an atmosphere free from restraint, and the sympathy which existed between pupils and teacher was marked.

The neglected function of laugh-

ter in the area of mental hygiene in teaching is one that appears to warrant its study. As supervisors we should seek to develop a sense of humor in those persons for whom we are held responsible. Most of all, we should obey the injunction, "Heal thyself," and by our own gayety, show that we approve of laughter in others.

Leacock has said that "Teaching humor would not mean teaching people to make fun of things, but teaching people to understand things. . . . Humor at its highest is a part of the interpretation of life. . . . In a world that teaches everything that can be studied or taught, humor alone remains an unexplored field."

[*Florence Brumbaugh is on the staff of Hunter College, New York City. Reported from* Educational Method, *XX (November, 1940), 69-70.*]

EVERY class has its particular problem children. Each teacher says, in selfdefense, that the class would be perfect if so-and-so were not in it. I had such a problem, the son of the president of the school board. One day I was struggling to teach the principles of a correct business letter. Bill, who hated me, first of all because I was a woman, and more, because I taught English, was not following the discussion; he was brazenly writing with more interest than he had evinced all year. Unobtrusively I took the paper from him as I passed his desk. The disconcerting color of his face made me curious as to its contents. When the youngsters had gone that afternoon, I found the paper and unfolded it. There was a perfectly constructed business letter form addressed to me, but the body of the letter consisted of a single line, "You may go to hell with my compliments."

What should I do? I had punished him until I could get nothing from him. Then some guardian angel sent a fleeting inspiration. The next morning when he came through the hall, I called him to me. He drew up his shoulders and slouched over my desk in the pose of the about-to-be lectured.

"Bill," I said, "the next time you spell Hell, please use a capital H."

It is hard to believe, but Bill earned a *B* in English that year, and capitalization became a most amusing subject among the boys of that class. I needed no further motivation.—Evelyn Wynn Brehm in the *Pennsylvania School Journal.*

A STUDY IN TOLERANCE

ELIZABETH E. REED

In Religious Education

A STUDY in inter-faith relations in a New York parochial school suggests a field open to all forward-looking schools. The point of departure would, of course, be different in nonchurch schools and different plans would evolve according to the initiative of the varying groups of children but the basic idea might be used anywhere.

The Roman Catholic Church of Corpus Christi is a few blocks north of Columbia University. The school connected with it uses excellent methods and is conducted by white-robed Sisters of the Dominican Order. The parents of the children are largely Irish, but there are other nationalities — American, French, and German.

Last fall, a Sister was teaching religious history to her eighth grade. The subject was the Israelites' flight from their persecutors in Egypt. Discussion of the status of the Jews in those days and at the time Christ lived led naturally to the question of the Jew in the world today.

The Sister discovered that the children all knew of the persecution of Jews abroad but had no idea that discrimination against them existed in this country. When she suggested that there might be such bias here, questions were asked.

"Are all Jews and Christians against each other?" "What is the attitude of the Church on the matter?" "What does prejudice mean?" "What evidence is there that anti-Semitism exists?" "What is Zenophobia?" "What causes Jews or Christians to feel superior to the opposite group?" "Do all Jews stand together?" "Which is worse, religious or racial hatred?"

The Sister decided that here was occasion for a detailed study in tolerance. She told her class to find articles written by people of authority so that they might decide if there would be justification in making a study of the problem.

In the magazine rack in their own church was found a pamphlet called, *Dare We Hate the Jews?* by Rev. Daniel A. Lord, a Jesuit priest. One boy brought in an article on "The Catholic and the Jew" by Monsignor Ryan of the Catholic University in Washington, D. C. The children agreed that important people in their Church had pronounced American anti-Semitism to be of growing magnitude. Therefore, they would like to know more about it.

They decided to write to prominent Jews of whom they had heard and, among others, received replies from Eddie Cantor, Mary Antin, and Representative Dickstein. The film star's answer was noteworthy. He believed that anti-Semitism was an American rather than a Jewish problem. Should it grow, it would

make a gash in the unity of this country, exceedingly dangerous in a democracy.

Various books were passed around —Mary Antin's *Promised Land, We Jews* by Dubois, *A Peculiar Treasure* by Edna Ferber. Back numbers of the *Reader's Digest,* the *Commonweal, America,* provided material. *The Merchant of Venice* was studied. They turned the pages of the Jewish *Who's Who.*

The Sister took the class to the museum of the Jewish Theological Seminary a few blocks away where ceremonial objects of great antiquity and some of marked beauty gave to the Jew his own cultural dignity.

They learned that of an estimated world population of 1,200,000,000 there were but 16,000,000 Jews. In our huge country, only 4,000,000 claim the synagogue as their spiritual center. Derivations were studied: "Semite" was found to come from Sem, son of Noah and "Jew" from Juda, son of Joseph.

Murals representing the history of the Jewish people were begun. Brightly colored pictures of almost life-size figures finally stretched across the back wall of the school room. There were 11 divisions with the central one marking the beginning of Christianity. Caesar, Pompey, and Herod stood on one side of Christ. Dull blue Oriental houses showed on the other. They were touched by gold light which came from a great star in the center of a Latin cross.

The more ancient history showed the flight of the children of Israel from Egypt; the important leaders, Abraham, Saul, David, Solomon, and Moses with his scroll of the Ten Commandments. The Babylonian Captivity made another scene and there followed the Persian rulers and the Maccabees.

Representing time after Christ was a view of the burning city of Jerusalem seen through the Arch of Titus, the Roman conqueror. Then came the city rebuilt under Hadrian's orders and in 637 A.D. the power-loving Turks. Groups of Crusaders continued the story. Centuries were jumped for the final picture. It showed King George V wearing a smart red military jacket and promising Palestine as a homeland for the Jews in fulfillment of their age-long dream.

After three or four months of work and discussion had gone by, conclusions crystallized in the light of the children's new knowledge. They were put into concise form and listed.

So much interest was stirred inside the school and by groups visiting it that the class was asked to give a presentation of the project for an audience. Other grades of Corpus Christi School and many interested adults profited by it. One girl stated how the decision to work on the project had been arrived at. Another child told of the material read, another of the letters written and received. A small girl took a

pointer and showed Esther, Abraham, Moses, and all the other figures in the murals, explaining the idea and symbolism of each group. One boy had the summary of the class questions on the end of his tongue and a slim, dark lad reported the conclusions. All was done seriously, fluently, and with a fine lack of selfconsciousness.

The conclusions are, of course, the most arresting part of this notable experiment which, should it become known, might have widespread influence in the United States. It seems the most intensive piece of school teaching in tolerance and democratic understanding heard of in some time and the one apt to make the biggest dent in the children's thinking.

The following are among the statements agreed upon by members of the class:

"The Jew is not persecuted because he is a Jew but because he is a member of a minority group. The Armenians today are being persecuted for the same reason. Catholics, too, have been persecuted for no other reason. Persecution is a weapon used against a minority by the unsuccessful, the ignorant, and the bigoted. Persecution is, we believe, first an economic problem."

"The people who wish to exterminate the Jews have by their persecution brought about anything but the desired effect. In a recent book, *A Peculiar Treasure,* one finds this statement, 'Because of a Hitler the Jews of Europe and of the world have perforce became more intensely racial.' "

"The Jews should not think that their persecution is due to the Christians' claiming that the Jews put Christ to death. Christians know that it was only a few Jewish leaders who induced the Romans to put Christ to death."

"It seems to us that we, Catholics and Jews, have much in common, part of which is persecution. We are going to do everything in our power to help and not to hinder the Jew, not only because our religion obliges us to do so, but because both they and we should benefit by good fellowship."

"We do not believe that assimilation is advisable. The non-Jew should be educated to the fact that Jews as a group of people have much to contribute to our cultural development. We think that America should be made safe for differences."

[*Elizabeth E. Reed is a volunteer worker on the New York Women's Committee of the National Conference of Christians and Jews. Reported from* Religious Education, *XXXV (October-December, 1940), 236-37.*]

ROCHESTER INCLUDES NURSING

JESSIE WINCHELL TICKELL

In the Nation's Schools

THE Rochester School of Practical Nursing is the only one of its kind under public education in New York state. Development of the course was made necessary by the Todd Law, effective July 1, 1940, requiring licensing of practical nurses. The course is 17 months in length. Five months are spent in the home-making cottage and the laboratory for nursing training; six months in intensive training in a cooperating hospital which does not train professional nurses; one month in vacation; and five months in supervised work in homes. Classes of 24 are admitted twice yearly. At any one time there is one class in the teaching center, one in the hospital, and one in homes under supervision.

Admission requirements are: age, 19-45; satisfactory health as determined by a physical examination; eighth-grade graduation (high school graduates preferred); personal fitness determined by psychological tests and personal interview. The course is free to residents of Rochester and both married and single women are eligible.

The home center of the School of Practical Nursing is a small house located in a foreign section of the city. Its furnishings are simple and attractive. The kitchen is arranged in units so as to offer experience with distinctly different types of equipment, such as coal, wood, electric, kerosene, and gas stoves. The nursing arts are taught in a room in the neighboring elementary school containing four hospital beds and other essential equipment. The elementary school houses a nursery school and the responsibility for preparing and serving the noon meal for the nursery school children proves a valuable addition to the theoretical course. Through this experience student nurses meet the daily problems of child development and observe the methods of handling behavior problems under the leadership of a trained teacher.

A noon meal is also served the 24 student nurses and four teachers. The preparation and serving of meals for normal families, for little children, and for special diets are all part of the experience of the students in the home center. They are also taught home-making skills, nutrition, home management, entertaining, financing, marketing, child development, family life, personal regimen, handicrafts for convalescent patients, and the fundamentals of the nursing arts.

From the home center the student goes to the hospital for intensive training in the nursing arts and then to supervised work on the job. Every effort is made to provide a variety of home experiences for each pupil. The home requesting the services of a student nurse pays $10

weekly plus carfare, or $2 a day for a broken week. Further, the pupil must be released one afternoon a week to attend a class at the home center. A folder suggesting agreements between employer and employee has helped avoid exploitation and misunderstanding.

Since June, 1940, every member of the first graduating class has been employed at a salary of from $15 to $20 weekly.

For this training program, the staff at present includes the director of the school, one full-time teacher of the nursing arts and supervisor of the home experience, one part-time teacher of the nursing arts, one full-time supervising teacher in the hospital (salary paid by the hospital), and one full-time home-economics teacher. Additional part-time service is given by specialists in child development, parent education, and specialized handwork.

Rochester physicians have expressed forceful appreciation for this training course. Homes report satisfaction with the service rendered by trainees. Registered professional nurses are increasingly cooperative as they sense that the purpose of this school is distinct from professional training. And the students themselves are most enthusiastic over the course and the tangible results of fairly assured employment.

[*Jessie Winchell Tickell is Director of Home Economics Education, Rochester, N. Y., Public Schools. Reported from the* Nation's Schools, *XXVI (November, 1940), 47-48.*]

IN the annual summary of college enrolments made by Raymond Walters and published in *School and Society,* the following facts are revealed: Of the 652 institutions reporting last year and this, 57 universities under public control have 773 fewer full-time students than in 1939, or a decrease of 0.28 percent; 53 universities under private control have 1960 more full-time students than in 1939, a 1.04 percent increase. Four hundred fourteen separate colleges of arts and sciences show remarkably little change with only 85 more students than in 1939, or a percentage increase of 0.04 percent. Fifty-two technological institutions show the largest gain of 2254 students, or an increase of 2.24 percent over 1939. Seventy-six teachers colleges show a decrease of 665 students, a percentage loss of 0.87 (as compared with the increase for these schools of 7.9 percent for 1939 over 1938).

WHO'S WHO AMONG THE MAGAZINES

WILLIAM D. WILKINS AND WILLIAM H. ANDERSON, JR.
In the Phi Delta Kappan

MANY educators read thoroughly in their special fields of interest but they find it necessary to keep informed about trends and current ideas in other areas of education. Obviously, they cannot read all of the more than 400 educational journals now being published, so they turn to the digest magazines or to a selected group of magazines.

During the course of an investigation into the sources from which abstracts and digests have been selected for the three digest magazines in education (*Loyola Educational Digest*, EDUCATION DIGEST, and *Education Abstracts*), the writers have tabulated all of the selections over a period of five years. Certain of the relevant findings, together with some conclusions as to the significance of the choices made, are presented here in an effort to indicate which magazines more often than others print articles considered especially useful for the worker in education.

Before examining in detail the rank orders of the various magazines as they are listed in terms of the selection of articles from them for inclusion in the digest magazines, it may be well to examine the purposes of the three digest magazines themselves.

That these digests serve a useful purpose as a guide to the significant literature in education and as indispensable aids to research is attested to by statements of many educators. Several hundred university and college library subscriptions are further evidence of the usefulness of these magazines.

The editor of the *Loyola Educational Digest*, in a letter to one of the writers, said, "In selecting articles for abstracts, our guiding principle is to use material which we feel a college professor of education might consider worth giving to his classes. We believe that material useful to professors and students in courses in education that are not highly specialized will likewise be useful to superintendents, principals, and teachers."

An editorial note in each issue of the *Loyola Educational Digest* states: "Our policy is not to list short articles that treat subjects on which much fuller presentations are easily accessible to all. Short articles are listed if they treat subjects of interest on which references are hard to find, or if they contain experimental data." The *Loyola Educational Digest* gives a survey of educational and psychological fields. Each issue comprises a total of 16 pages and a set of 20 cards containing digests or abstracts. It appears ten times yearly. Selected bibliographies on subjects of interest to teachers are often included. Each card has a Dewey classification num-

ber. Book reviews occupy a great percentage of the space of the issue of 16 pages. The book reviews are descriptive in nature, aimed at showing the contents of the books as fully as possible in brief form. Each issue, besides the short reviews, contains a classified bibliography of the contents of various educational and psychological periodicals, American and British. The data are classified under 44 topic headings.

The editor, Dr. Austin G. Schmidt, signs most of the abstracts although of late date a few others have been collaborating. All abstracts are signed by the abstractor.

In *Education Abstracts* the editors plan to print each month a group of selected abstracts of books and magazine articles. The stated purpose of the magazine is to publish abstracts which will serve as an accurate and reliable guide to significant literature in education. It is published monthly except August. Each issue of 32 pages contains an average of 125 abstracts which are classified in 38 categories.

Because of the limitations of space, few single issues contain abstracts in every category, but a balance between the numbers in various categories is maintained over the whole year's publication. Book abstracts average 23 percent of the total.

The editors of *Education Abstracts* select articles which they believe to be worthwhile, and assign them to members of the staff who are selected for interest and ability in special fields. There is quite a large board of cooperating abstractors. The abstracts are signed.

The EDUCATION DIGEST, published monthly, September through May, prints about 20 digests in each issue. The policy of the EDUCATION DIGEST, as stated, is: "Articles are chosen because of their significance, interest, timeliness, probable effect on educational practice, and practical application." The editor, however, conceives these broadly, for in a letter to one of the writers, he has said, "no hard and fast criteria have been established." In brochure advertising the statement is made: "Each month the editors choose a score or more of the most important and interesting articles from the leading educational magazines and reports, and publish them in condensed form, retaining the main points and style of the original." The editors do not look for articles in any select group of magazines but "attempt to cover all periodicals in the field and others as well."

Articles in the EDUCATION DIGEST are not classified or subsumed under any category. The editor and his staff apparently do most, if not all, of the abstracting. The abstracts are not signed. There is a section on educational news and also one of new books, the latter merely being listed. The back cover is generally given over to description of various events in the field of education.

During the period, 1936-40, 5388 magazine articles were abstracted or digested in the three digest magazines. Of this number, 1491, or more than 27 percent, were chosen from the 12 magazines in the following table and 2674 were selected from the 49 magazines comprising the first 30 ranks in the three magazines. Most of the remaining 380 magazines in education are represented by one or two abstracts, although some are not represented at all.

TOTAL NUMBER OF ABSTRACTS FROM THE HIGHEST RANKING JOURNALS

Magazines	*Issues Annually*	*Total No. of Digests*
School and Society	52	229
School Review	10	187
Elementary School Journal	10	159
Educational Method	8	115
Education	10	114
Journal of Educational Research	8	112
Teachers College Record	8	108
Journal of Educational Sociology	9	106
Educational Record	4	97
Journal of Higher Education	9	89
Clearing House	9	88
Progressive Education	8	87

The selection of nearly one-half of all abstracts and digests from a group of 48 magazines when there are more than 421 educational periodicals published in the United States brings to mind some interesting speculations.

That the names of certain magazines should appear so frequently would seem to indicate a rather marked amount of agreement among the three editors as to the relative worth of the educational journals. Conversely, a scrutiny of the names of the 20 highest ranking journals shows that they are all well known, indicating probably that the digest editors selected articles from journals which they knew by experience to be familiar to their readers. This means a double selection; by the editors of the journals in the first instance, and by the editors of the digest magazines in the second.

From the material available it seems apparent that the choice of articles to be abstracted or digested is primarily, if not solely, the responsibility of the editor or associate editor in direct charge of the editorial work of the magazine. Suggestions concerning specific articles and advice about general policy are offered by contributing and advisory editors, but the burden of responsibility seems to rest rather directly on the individual in charge of the publication. Without being, or seeming to be, unduly critical of this policy, it seems fair to raise at least two questions concerning it.

The first is: how many of the more than 420 educational periodicals does the editor examine in his search for material to be abstracted? The second is: how thorough a search is or can be made of the magazines that are available?

Although the three magazines have abstracted more than 5300 articles during the past five years,

they do not singly or collectively constitute a complete abstracting or indexing service to the periodical literature of education in the United States. There is no magazine or group of magazines which does supply such a complete service, although the research worker in education needs it badly. The *Education Index* lists only 150 magazines all of which are included in the magazines selected for abstracting by the digest magazines.

While the service of these magazines does not cover the whole field of educational journalism and while the selection of articles for abstracting is primarily the work of one man for each magazine, they still provide abstracts and digests of large numbers of articles from what experience has shown to be the significant and carefully edited journals.

The digest magazines meet a wide variety of interests at most levels of education. The regular reader of one or more of them should become aware of the major problems and trends in the whole field of education and gain a greater understanding of his own field, widened by a perspective of the whole.

William D. Wilkins is an Instructor in the School of Education, St. Louis University, and William H. Anderson, Jr., Associate Editor, the Phi Delta Kappan *and* Education Abstracts, *1938-40, is Principal of the Garden Place and Globeville Elementary Schools, Denver, Colorado, and Instructor, University College, Denver University. Reported from the* Phi Delta Kappan, *XXIII (November, 1940), 105-11.*

GUIDANCE bulletins to enable pupils to choose wisely among the subjects offered are no novelty. However, one published recently by the Fort Dodge, Iowa, High School, of which C. T. Feelhaver is Principal, is sufficiently different to deserve comment. In addition to listing the courses and describing carefully their content, the bulletin gives statements of former pupils about the courses; lists qualities needed for success, as in journalism; or lists a series of questions which a pupil may expect to have answered by enrolling in a particular course, such as: "Clothing 2: Do you look your best? How far can you stretch your clothing dollar? Are you a wise consumer? Do you like to sew? Learn to put individuality into your clothes by making sports clothes, dresses, skirts, blouses, or any needed garment in Clothing 2."—*School Review.*

PERSONALITIES: **Harlan H. Horner,** former associate commissioner for higher education, New York State Education Department, has been appointed executive secretary of the National Council on Dental Education of the American Dental Association. . . . **W. E. Kerschner,** secretary of the Ohio State Retirement system, died recently. . . . **John A. Hannah** will succeed **Robert S. Shaw** as president of Michigan State College of Agriculture and Applied Science on the latter's retirement next July. . . . **Charles R. Foster, Jr.,** associate professor of education, Rutgers University, is the new dean of the school of education, University of Miami, Florida. . . . **Verne C. Fryklund,** associate professor of vocational education at Wayne University and supervisor of vocational education in the Detroit, Mich., public schools, has been appointed associate professor of industrial education at the University of Minnesota. . . . **J. C. Ryan** of the University of Alaska has been appointed commissioner of education of the Territory of Alaska, succeeding **Anthony E. Karnes.** . . . **W. A. Young** has been named president of Friends University, Wichita, Kansas, succeeding the late **David M. Edwards.** . . . **Calvin Grieder** of the University of Buffalo has been appointed professor of school administration at the University of Colorado. . . . **Roy A. Seaton,** dean of the division of engineering, Kansas State College, has been named director of the engineering defense training program in the division of higher education of the U. S. Office of Education. . . . **Orville G. Brim,** professor of elementary education, Ohio State University, has resigned because of poor health. . . . **Lyman E. Jackson** of Ohio State University has been appointed president of the South Dakota College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts, Brookings. . . . **William G. Kimmel,** professor of social science at the State University of Iowa, former editor of *Social Studies,* died of a heart attack on December 13 at 44 years of age. . . . **Chester C. Bennett** of the Rochester, N. Y., Guidance Center, has been appointed associate professor of education, University of Missouri. . . . **Joseph M. Gwinn,** professor of education, San Jose, Calif., State College, has retired. . . . **William E. Grady,** associate superintendent of the New York City schools, died recently. . . . **Francis G. Cornell** of the New York State Department of Education has been named assistant to the U. S. Commissioner of Education. . . . **W. R. Davies,** former superintendent of the Superior, Wis., public schools, has been named president of the Eau Claire, Wis., State Teachers College. His successor at Superior is **Angus B. Rothwell,** former principal of the high school. . . . **Homer Howard** of the University of Florida has been ap-

pointed head of the mathematics department of the Frostburg, Md., State Teachers College. . . . **Theodore Wilson** is the new president of the University of Baltimore. . . . **Frederick W. Maroney,** associate professor of health education, Teachers College, Columbia University, has been named professor of hygiene for men, Brooklyn, N. Y., College. . . . **Paul Fendrick** of the State College of Washington, has been appointed director of remedial reading and arithmetic for the New York City schools and WPA. . . . **Walter A. Cox** of Ithaca, N. Y., College has been appointed professor of health and physical education at Springfield, Mass., College. . . . **Russell T. Scobee,** superintendent of the Jefferson City, Mo., schools, has been named superintendent at Little Rock, Ark., on the retirement of **R. C. Hall.** Mr. Scobee will be succeeded by **Wade C. Fowler** of the Missouri State Department of Education. . . . **Alice A. Smith** of the Winston-Salem, N. C., Teachers College has been named dean of the education division, Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College for Negroes, Tallahassee. . . . The new director of physical education for the University of Wyoming is **Hubert J. McCormick,** former associate professor of physical education, Chico, Calif., State College. . . . **William C. Hanan,** superintendent of the Stoughton, Wis., public schools, has been named president of the Central State Teachers College, Stevens Point, Wis. . . . Brigadier General **Robert L. Eichelberger,** commanding officer of the Presidio of San Francisco, has been named superintendent of the United States Military Academy, West Point, N. Y., succeeding Major General **Jay L. Benedict** who has been transferred to command of the Fourth Army Corps, Camp Blanding, Fla. . . . **L. P. Goodrich,** superintendent of the Fond du Lac, Wis., schools, has been appointed assistant superintendent of the Milwaukee schools. His successor at Fond du Lac is **T. J. Jenson,** former superintendent at Delavan, Wis. . . . **W. E. Derryberry** of the Murray, Ky., State Teachers College has been elected president of the Tennessee Polytechnic Institute, Cookeville, succeeding **J. M. Smith.** . . . **Sara T. Delaney,** dean of women, Blackburn College, Carlinville, Ill., has been appointed dean of women at the New York State College for Teachers, Albany, succeeding **Helen H. Moreland.** . . . The president of the University of Utah, **George Thomas,** will retire next June.

ANNOUNCEMENT has been made through the press by the National Association of Manufacturers that a study will be undertaken of some 800 public school textbooks so that members of the association may "move against any that are found prejudicial to our form of government, our society, or to the system

of free enterprise." Professor Ralph W. Robey of the economics department of Columbia University who is said to have long been one of the foremost critics of "the socialism of the New Deal" will gather quotations and abstracts from textbooks in the fields of history, civics, sociology, and economics which will be sent to members of the association ostensibly so that they can read questionable books in their entirety and take measures against them locally if they so desire.

BECAUSE of current drives of organized pressure groups, taxpayers' leagues, and "economy" groups to curtail public education, the following program of education has been sent by the Permanent Education Committee of the American Federation of Labor to all state federations of labor and all central labor bodies throughout the nation: (I) Adequate and proper enforcement of compulsory school attendance laws. (II) Adequate appropriations for the maintenance of schools to be administered for the social well being of the students to be taught in classes not to exceed 25, in well constructed buildings, by teachers paid salaries commensurate with the great value of their service to the community. (III) Professional and social security for teachers, through: state-wide tenure laws, teacher pension laws, and leave of absence. (IV) Provision for the training for civic responsibility for all persons in the community. (V) Negatively, there must be no substantive legislation on curriculum making, and no limitations enacted into law which would prevent the teaching of social and physical sciences in our schools, a principle in absolute keeping with the great tradition of free government upon which our schools are founded.

THE following news item appeared in *Time* for December 23: "In Rochester, N. Y. last week, while city health officers struggled with a polluted water system, School Superintendent James M. Spinning announced an answer to the problem of polluted textbooks. Goaded by Rugg-beaters (critics of widely used texts by Columbia Professor Harold Rugg), Superintendent Spinning had polled the city's 17,000 high school students, found that 99.22 percent approved the U. S. form of government. Less than 1 percent had read any schoolbooks which, they thought, 'break down the loyalty of pupils to the United States.' Sixteen of them said Professor Rugg's did so. Others denounced as subversive *The Man Without a Country*, the *World Almanac*."

LAST August Senator Wagner of New York introduced a bill (S.4269) designed to place local and state employees under federal social security. Immediate protest was made by teacher groups already

covered by pension or retirement plans who, in some cases, would receive benefits under the federal plan that would be lower than under their voluntary plans. Senator Wagner thereupon made several revisions of his bill which he said was introduced in order to clarify the issues as he had no intention of injuring persons already covered. The probability is that the bill will be entirely rewritten and introduced at the new session of Congress this month. Educational leaders now seem to favor a partly voluntary plan wherein existing systems would be exempted but all other areas might voluntarily accept the federal program.

BETTER civic education will be the objective of the activities of a new organization known as the Committee on Education for Democratic Citizenship which has been established by the National Association of Secondary School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies. Financed by a grant of $17,500 from the General Education Board, the committee, headed by Paul B. Jacobson of the University of Chicago, will develop between 20 and 30 units on all important problems in the field of civics and social studies. Topics will include youth unemployment, labor relations, national defense, and personal security. An attempt will be made to tie the school closer to community problems. Following experimental use of the materials in 20 high schools near Chicago, they will be distributed nationally. A workshop will be established to provide training, information, and service to teachers involved in the project.

A RECENT study of military leaves of absence for teachers by the Research Division of the NEA indicates that, in general, in the majority of large cities the teacher who is drafted will be reinstated as soon as his military service is ended, most probably in the same position that he left to enter the Army. He will ordinarily receive no pay from the board of education while in the Army and will return to the salary level he left or the same salary plus increments he would have earned by continuing teaching. A policy of paying the absent employee at least a portion of his regular salary while he is in the Army is either in practice or proposed in Boston, Camden, Lowell, Richmond, New York, and New Orleans.

A PLAN to help high school principals in their efforts to aid their students to become better adjusted occupationally after they leave school is now being introduced under the sponsorship of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. By studying the former students, both graduates and dropouts, information is obtained which is basic to a continuous appraisal of that aspect of the school program

aimed at occupational adjustment. Aided by a grant from the General Education Board, the National Association is continuing its project known as the Occupational Adjustment Study. The purpose of the second year of work is to try out in various practical school situations the survey-plan developed in an intensive study of six high schools near New York City last year. The Occupational Follow-up and Adjustment Service Plan, as it is called, involves the use of four instruments: (1) the *Follow-up Record Card* upon which certain essential school and home background data are entered before the youth leaves school and upon which the data from the successive follow-ups are accumulated for the purpose of tabulation and cross-analysis; (2) the *Post-School Inventory,* a questionnaire which is sent to all youth at approximately one-, three-, and five-year intervals after they leave school; (3) the *Follow-up Interview Schedule,* with which a selected sample of the school-leavers are interviewed; (4) the *Employer Interview Schedule,* with which a selected sample of the employers of the youth are interviewed. A manual has just been published which contains specific instructions for the use of the instruments, and detailed suggestions for carrying out a follow-up program. It gives definite suggestions for analyzing the data thus collected. Secondary schools in all sections of the country are being invited to cooperate in conducting these uniform follow-up studies. Already schools in 25 of the 48 states have initiated the program. Any school interested in the follow-up plan may obtain a sample set of the instruments and further information by writing to Edward Landy, Director, at the national headquarters, 425 West 123rd Street, New York City.

SIXTY-FOUR American engineering colleges in 35 states, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have announced 250 short, intensive training courses designed to meet the shortage of engineers for service as designers, inspectors, and supervisors with the industries and government agencies engaged in the National Defense program. Acceptance of the individual proposals is based, in each instance, upon a demonstration by the school that there is a definite defense need for the men to be trained, that it has the experience and facilities to give the necessary instruction at a reasonable cost, and that a sufficient number of qualified students are available. Should the latter not be forthcoming, provision is made for the cancellation of the course. Prospective students must satisfy the engineering school giving the instruction that they have the requisite technical training and experience to understand the subject and that they are employable in defense work. Applicants will be considered by the

schools individually. Those accepted will have their tuition costs paid by the federal government. Congress recently appropriated $9,000,000 to be administered by the U. S. Office of Education, for this purpose.

LEGISLATION will be introduced at the next session of the Arkansas legislature to authorize the establishment of local publicly controlled and supported junior colleges. The bill will include the following provisions among others: (1) No area will be eligible unless there are at least 500 students. (2) No more than a two-mill tax may be levied. (3) An assessed valuation of ten million dollars is required before a governmental unit may organize a junior college.

A NEW publication in the field of physical education recently made its appearance. Named the *Physical Educator,* it is the official organ of Phi Epsilon Kappa, physical education fraternity. Publication is on a quarterly basis with editorial offices in Indianapolis, Ind. R. R. Schreiber is editor and assistant editors are Karl W. Bookwalter, L. B. Chenoweth, A. A. Esslinger, Grover Mueller, and Carl Schrader. The annual subscription rate is $1.50 and single copies are 35 cents.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

January 9-10, 1941, Association of American Colleges, Pasadena, Calif.

January 17-18, Southern Atlantic States Conference of the National Vocational Guidance Association, Richmond, Va.

January 25-27, Child Labor Day.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

February 13-15, American Camping Association, Washington, D. C.

February 18-21, National Association of Deans of Women, Atlantic City, N. J.

February 19-22, Progressive Education Association, Philadelphia, Pa.

February 19-22, National Vocational Guidance Conference, Atlantic City, N. J.

February 19-22, Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations, Atlantic City, N. J.

February 20-22, International Council for Exceptional Children, New York City.

February 22-27, American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic City, N. J.

February 27-March 1, American Association of Junior Colleges, Chicago, Ill.

March 26-29, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Chicago, Ill.

April 16-18, National Catholic Educational Association, New Orleans, La.

April 30-May 3, American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, Atlantic City, N. J.

NEW BOOKS

ELEMENTARY

Paul R. Hanna, I. James Quillen, and Gladys L. Potter, *Ten Communities.* Social studies textbook for the middle grades. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co. 512 pp. $1.16.

Frank N. Freeman, *Solving Handwriting Needs As We See Them Today.* Discussion of left-handed writers, manuscript writing, and skill periods. Columbus, Ohio: Zaner-Bloser Co. 36 pp. Paper. 10 cents.

Emmett Albert Betts, *Spelling Vocabulary Study.* Report of an investigation of grade placement of words in 17 spellers. Cincinnati: American Book Co. 72 pp. Paper. $1.00.

SECONDARY

Edward Landy, *et al., The Occupational Follow-up and Adjustment Service Plan.* A manual developed by the staff of the Occupational Adjustment Study for principals instituting the plan for the better occupational adjustment of their school-leavers. New York: The Occupational Adjustment Study of the National Association of Secondary School Principals. 96 pp.

Stops, A Handbook for Those Who Know Their Punctuation and for Those Who Aren't Quite Sure. Middlebury, Vt.: Middlebury College Press. 37 pp. $1.00.

Carl L. Becker and Frederic Duncalf, *Story of Civilization.* New York: Silver Burdett Co., 863 pp. $2.40.

Archibald Hart and F. Arnold Lejeune. *The Growing Vocabulary—Fun and Adventure with Words.* New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc. 126 pp. $1.00.

Dudley Miles and Christine M. Keck, *Literature and Life, Book One.* Third edition of a book of reading selections. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co. 588 pp. $1.80.

GENERAL

William J. E. Crissy and Raigh Mason, *An Evaluation Study of the NYA Student Work Program in New Hampshire Schools and Colleges.* Concord, N. H.: National Youth Administration. 115 pp. Mimeo.

M. M. Chambers, *The Eighth Yearbook of School Law—1940.* A narrative topical summary of decisions of the higher courts in all states in cases involving school law, as reported during the preceding year. Washington: American Council on Education. 185 pp. Paper. $1.00.

1000 and One—The Blue Book of Non-Theatrical Films. Classified listing of 5200 films. Chicago: The Educational Screen. 132 pp. 75 cents.

Charlotte Matson and Dorothy Wurzburg, *Books for Tired Eyes.* A list of books for adults and juveniles in large print. Chicago: American Library Association. 79 pp. Paper. 65 cents.

George S. Terry, *The Dozen System, An Easier Method of Arithmetic.* An advocacy of 12 as the basis for our number system instead of 10. New York: Longmans Green and Co. 53 pp. 50 cents.

Special Subscription Rates

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Variations . . .

★ A color scheme in salmon pink, canary yellow, and powder blue is being tried out in the Central Grade School at Ironwood, Mich., in the hope that it will have a stimulating psychological effect on the pupils. The color scheme revolves around a salmon shade (at the base of the walls) which reflects light. The color is composed of vermilion and a light and a medium chrome yellow. In a room that has abundant light or a room with light from two directions the salmon is combined with a blue which absorbs light. In a room which has less light, the salmon color is worked with a canary yellow, which reflects light. The theory in back of the painting scheme is that light from outside strikes the salmon color, is reflected upward to the canary yellow, which in turn throws it upward to the white ceiling or distributes it throughout the room. When indirect lighting is used, the light strikes the ceiling and is then distributed. Even the ceiling, which appears to be an ordinary white, is specially mixed. Actually it contains a small amount of vermilion and pink so that the harshness is taken out of the white. The innovator of the plan is Aare Lahti, a native of Ironwood. After he had tested out the color combinations, Mrs. Lahti, a student of psychology, made tests that seemed to show that certain pastel shades actually transported children out of dull moods. The present experiment at Ironwood is part of a school painting and renovating project of the Work Projects Administration. A. E. Erickson, Superintendent of Schools at Ironwood, is pleased with the idea. "It is," he says, "an effort to escape from the drabness of most classrooms and the dull state of mind that sometimes results from it. In addition to the new painting job, we shall have bright new desks—not the dirty old brown ones, but bright new ones showing the grain of the wood. We are sure the students will appreciate this, and also be less likely to carve their names on them." (In the *School Executive.*)

★ High school students of Ladysmith, Wisconsin, under the sponsorship of E. M. Dahlberg, instructor in biology, are cultivating a forest as a school memorial. In 1936 the senior class purchased 40 acres, and boys in the classes in biology planted the entire tract to pines and spruces. Other graduating classes have purchased 120 additional acres. By June, 1940, 90 of the total 160 acres had been planted. The tract is on a federal highway five miles from the school. With a crew of 60 boys working in squads of three, Mr. Dahlberg estimates, 2000 trees may be planted in an hour. During the last two years, boys in the agriculture classes have joined the young workers from the biology classes. Adjoining the high school department of agriculture, several blocks from the school, are the seedling nurseries. A gift in 1937 of 25,000 white-pine seedlings from a Civilian Conservation Corps camp, which could make no provision for their planting, helped greatly with the supply, though seedlings can be obtained from the state conservation department for little more than the cost of express charges.—(In the *Bulletin of the American Youth Commission.*)

★ The Michigan State Board of Vocational Education has acquired a fully equipped camp for the use of teacher and student groups. Located in the midst of a 35,000-acre state forest on Allegan Lake, it is known as Camp Michi-Vo-Ed. A number of educational groups have used it for meetings since it was acquired last May.